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Book II

Easy Parsing and Analysis

Moolchand
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EASY PARSING & ANALYSIS

FOR THE USE OF UPPER PRIMARY AND LOWER
MIDDLE CLASSES IN ENGLISH-TEACHING
SCHOOLS

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CHAPTER I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH: DEFINITIONS.

1. The different kinds of words are called Parts of Speech. The Parts of Speech are eight in number:—

1. Noun.	5. Ad'-verb.
2. Verb.	6. Prep'-o-sit'-ion.
3. Pro'-noun.	7. Con-junc'-tion.
4. Ad'-jec-tive	8. In'-ter-jec'-tion.
2. A Noun is the name of a person or thing.
3. A Verb is a word by means of which we can say something about a person or thing.
4. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a Noun.
5. An Adjective qualifies (that is, adds something to the meaning of) a Noun.
6. An Adverb qualifies a Verb, Adjective, or other Adverb.
7. A Preposition is a word placed before a Noun or Pronoun, to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the Noun stands to something else.
Note.—The Noun or Pronoun preceded by a Preposition is called its object.
8. A Conjunction joins one word to another word of a similar Part of Speech, or one sentence to another sentence.
9. An Interjection is a word thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

CHAPTER II.—NOUNS.

§ 1. THE KINDS OF NOUNS.

10. Nouns are of five different kinds—(1) Proper, (2) Common, (3) Collective, (4) Material, (5) Abstract.

Proper Nouns.

11. A **Proper Noun** denotes *one particular person or thing as distinct from every other*; as, *James* (person). *New Testament* (book), *Lucknow* (city), *India* (country).

Note.—The writing of a Proper noun should be commenced with a capital letter.

Common Nouns.

12. A **Common Noun** denotes *no one person or thing in particular, but is common to all persons or things of the same kind*; as, “*man*,” “*book*,” “*country*.”

Here *man* does not point out any particular man, such as *James*, but can be used for *any and every man*. *Book* does not point out any particular book, such as the *New Testament*, but can be used for *any and every book*. *Country* does not point out any particular country, such as *India*, but can be used for *any and every country* in any part of the world.

Note.—A Proper noun becomes a Common noun, when it is used in a descriptive or general sense:—

The *Czar* (=the emperor) of Russia.

He is the *Newton* (=the greatest astronomer) of this century.

Collective Nouns.

13. A **Collective Noun** denotes a *group, collection, or multitude*, considered as one complete whole.

For instance there may be *many sheep* in a field, but only *one flock*. Here “*sheep*” is a Common noun, because it may stand for any and every *sheep*; but “*flock*” is a

• Collective noun, because it stands for *all the sheep at once* in that field, and not for any one sheep taken separately.

Nouns of Material.

14. A Noun of **Material** denotes the *matter* or *sub-*

stance of which things are made; as—

A cow eats *grass*. Seeds are sown in *soil*. *Salt* is necessary to life. Fish live in *water*. We cannot live without *air*. All things exist in *space*. *Fire* burns. That bar is made of *iron*. They had *fish* for dinner. We had *meat* with *bread* and *butter*. We shall dine on *wheat* to-day. *Milk* is the best of foods. Some men never eat *flesh*. We can write with *ink* or with *chalk*. A black-board is made of *wood*. *Air* is lighter than *water*.

Note.—The same word may be a Common noun or a noun of Material, according to the sense.

(a) “*Fish* live in *water*.” Here “*fish*” is a Common noun, because it denotes any individual fish or fishes—in fact any and every kind of animal which can be called by the common name “*fish*.”

(b) “*Fish* is good for food.” Here “*fish*” is a noun of Material, because it denotes the matter of which the bodies of fish are made.

Abstract Nouns.

15. An **Abstract** Noun denotes some *quality*, *state*, or *action* apart from anything possessing the quality, etc.

Quality.—Cleverness, height, humility, robbery, colour.

State.—Poverty, manhood, bondage, pleasure, youth.

Action.—Laughter, movement, flight, choice, revenge.

The four kinds of Nouns already named all relate to *objects of sense*,—that is, to things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt, or tasted. But an Abstract noun relates to things which cannot be seen or touched, etc., and which are thought of apart from any objects of sense.

For example—We know that stone is *hard*. We also know that iron is *hard*. We also know that a brick is *hard*. We can therefore speak of *hardness* apart from stone, or iron, or brick, or any other object having the same quality. “*Abstract*” means “*drawn off*” or “*apart from*” the object. Hence *hardness* is an Abstract noun.

Note.—The same word may be an Abstract noun or a Common noun, according to the sense.

When an Abstract noun is “used as a Common noun,” it may denote (a) the person possessing the quality, or (b) the thing to which the action, state, or quality belongs:—

(a) *Examples of Persons.*

		Abstract
Justice	{ 1. The quality of being just 2. A judge, or one who administers justice	Concrete
Beauty	{ 1. The quality or state of being beautiful. 2. A person possessing beauty	Abstract
Authority	{ 1. The power or right to command 2. A person possessing authority	Concrete
Nobility	{ 1. The quality of being noble 2. The men of the class of nobles	Abstract
Witness	{ 1. Evidence or testimony 2. One who gives the evidence	Concrete

(b) *Examples of Things.*

		Abstract
Judgment	{ 1. The act or quality of judging 2. The verdict given by the judge	Concrete
Sight	{ 1. The art or faculty of seeing 2. The thing seen: “a fine sight”	Abstract
Speech	{ 1. The faculty of speaking 2. The speech delivered: the word spoken	Concrete
Wonder	{ 1. The feeling of wonder or surprise 2. The wonderful event or object	Abstract
Kindness	{ 1. The quality of being kind 2. The kind thing done	Concrete

How Abstract Nouns are formed.

16. Abstract Nouns can be formed from Adjectives, or from Common nouns, or from Verbs:—

(i) *Abstract Nouns formed from Adjectives.*

Adjective.	Abstract Noun.	Adjective.	Abstract Noun.
Wise	wisdom	Just	justice
Poor	poverty	Great	greatness
High	height	Hot	heat
Short	shortness	Sleepy	sleepiness
Honest	honesty	Bitter	bitterness
Dark	darkness	Wide	width
Long	length	Sole	solitude
Brave	bravery	Broad	breadth
Prudent	prudence	Deep	depth
Sweet	sweetness	True	truth
Young	youth	Cold	coldness
Proud	pride	Humble	humility

(b) *Abstract Nouns formed from Common Nouns.*

Common Noun.	Abstract Noun.	Common Noun.	Abstract Noun.
Man	manhood	Bond	bondage
Child	childhood	Hero	heroism
Friend	friendship	Thief	theft
Boy	boyhood	Mother	motherhood
Captain	captaincy	Rascal	rascality
Priest	priesthood	Rogue	roguey
Agent	agency	Slave	slavery
Regent	regency	Infant	infancy
King	kingship	Owner	ownership

(c) *Abstract Nouns formed from Verbs.*

Verb.	Abstract Noun.	Verb.	Abstract Noun.
Serve	service	Advise	advice
Live	life	Defend	defence
Hate	hatred	Judge	judgment
Obey	obedience	Conceal	concealment
Choose	choice	Seize	seizure
Move	motion	Laugh	laughter
See	sight	Free	freedom
Relieve	relief	Expect	expectation
Believe	belief	Protect	protection
Please	pleasure	Think	thought

(d) *Abstract Nouns of the same form as Verbs.*

Verb.	Abstract Noun.	Verb.	Abstract Noun.
Fear	fear	Walk	walk
Hope	hope	Run	run
Desire	desire	Step	step
Regret	regret	Cry	cry
Order	order	Sob	sob
Move	move	Laugh	laugh
Rise	rise	Taste	taste
Fall	fall	Ride	ride
Stay	stay	Touch	touch
Stop	stop	Love	love

(e) *Verbal Nouns and Infinitives.*

Verb.	Abstract Noun.	Verbal Noun.	Infinitive.
Serve	service	serving	to serve
Laugh	laughter	laughing	to laugh
Sit	seat	sitting	to sit
Work	work	working	to work

There is no difference in meaning between an Abstract noun, a Verbal noun, and an Infinitive.

Work is good for health. (*Abstract Noun.*)

Working is good for health. (*Verbal Noun.*)

To work is good for health. (*Infinitive.*)

The three words (*work*, *working*, and *to work*) all mean the same thing. The difference is one of form, not of sense or meaning.

17. There are two ways in which a Proper, Material, or Abstract noun can be used as (or changed into) a Common noun:—(a) by putting an article ("a" or "the") before it; (b) by putting it in the plural number.

Proper Noun.

Daniel was a learned Jew. { *A Daniel* come to judgment.
There are more *Danials* than one.

Material Noun.

Mango is my favourite fruit. { Give me *the mango* in your hand.
Give me one of your *mangoes*.

Abstract Noun.

Justice is a noble quality. { He is a *justice* of the peace.
There are four *justices* present.

§ 2. GENDER.

18. That difference in the form of a Noun, which shows whether we are speaking of a male or a female, is called **Gender**.

The names of males are said to be of the **Masculine** Gender, as *man*; the names of females are said to be of the **Feminine** Gender, as *woman*.

Things without life cannot be either male or female; hence the names of such things are said to be of the **Neuter** (that is, neither) Gender; as, *house*, *stone*.

A name, which can be given either to a male or a female, is said to be of the **Common** Gender; as, *parent*, (father or mother); *child* (girl or boy).

19. There are three different ways by which a Masculine noun is distinguished from a Feminine:—
(1) by a change of ending; (2) by a change of word; (3) by placing a word before or after.

1. *By a Change of Ending.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Actor	actress	Master	mistress
Author	authoress	Murderer	murderess
Duke	duchess	Negro	negress
Emperor	empress	Patron	patroness
Giant	giantess	Poet	poetess (or poet)
God	goddess	Priest	priestess
Heir	heiress	Prince	princess
Host	hostess	Prophet	prophetess
Hunter	huntress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Lad	lass	Songster	songstress
Lion	lioness	Tiger	tigress
Hero	heroine	Widower	widow

2. *By a Change of Word.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Boar	sow	Horse	mare
Boy	girl	Husband	wife
Brother	sister	King	queen
Bull	cow	Lord	lady
Bullock (or steer)	heifer	Man	woman
Cock	hen	Nephew	niece
Buck	doe	Ram	ewe
Dog	bitch (or slut)	Sir	madam
Drake	duck	Son	daughter
Earl	countess	Stag	hind
Father	mother	Uncle	aunt
Friar (or monk)	nun	Wizard	witch
Gentleman	lady	Gander	goose
Bachelor	maid	Hart	roe

3. *By placing a Word Before or After.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
He-goat	she-goat	Bride-groom	bride
Land-lord	land-lady	Great-uncle	great-aunt
Man-servant	maid-servant	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Grand-father	grand-mother	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow

4. *Examples of Nouns in the Common Gender.*

Parent—father or mother.

Relation—male or female relation.

Friend—enemy—male or female friend or enemy.

Cousin—male or female cousin.

Bird—cock or hen.

Fowl—cock or hen.

Child—boy or girl, son or daughter.

Deer—stag or hind.

Fallow-deer—buck or doe.

Baby (or infant)—male or female baby (or infant).

Servant—man-servant or maid-servant.
 Monarch—king or queen, emperor or empress.
 Person—man or woman.
 Pupil—boy student or girl student.
 Orphan—boy or girl without parents.
 Pig—boar or sow.
 Sheep—ram or ewe.
 Elephant—male or female elephant.
 Camel—male or female camel.
 Calf—bullock or heifer.
 Foal—colt or filly.
 Student (or scholar)—male or female student.
 Teacher—master or mistress.

§ 3. NUMBER.

20. When a Noun denotes *one* object, it is said to be in the **Singular** number. When a Noun denotes *more than one*, it is said to be in the **Plural** number.

21. Proper, Material, and Abstract nouns have no Plural, unless they can be used as Common nouns:—

(a) Proper	<i>Egypt</i> is a country in Africa. (<i>Proper.</i>) Many <i>Egypt</i> s (=countries as large as Egypt) could be contained in India. (<i>Common.</i>)
	Milton was a poet of England. (<i>Proper.</i>) England did not produce two Miltons (=two poets equal to Milton). (<i>Common.</i>)
(b) Material	<i>Tea</i> is a pleasant drink. (<i>Material.</i>) The best <i>tea</i> s (=kinds of tea) grow in Assam. (<i>Common.</i>)
	All men should drink <i>water</i> . (<i>Material.</i>) The <i>waters</i> of Babylon (=the rivers of Babylon). (<i>Common.</i>)
(c) Abstract	<i>Kindness</i> is part of his character. (<i>Abstract.</i>) He did many <i>kindness</i> es (=acts of kindness). (<i>Common.</i>)
	He is a lover of <i>virtue</i> . (<i>Abstract.</i>) He has many <i>virtue</i> s (=kinds of virtue). (<i>Common.</i>)

22. The general rule for forming the Plural number of a noun is by adding *s* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Hand	hand-s	Garden	garden-s
Map	map-s	Star	star-s
House	house-s	Blow	blow-s
Stone	stone-s	Crack	crack-s

But if the Noun ends in *s*, *x*, *sh*, or *ch*, the Plural is formed by adding *es* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Glass	glass-es	Gash	gash-es
Gas	gas-es	Brush	brush-es
Tax	tax-es	Bench	bench-es
Box	box-es	Coach	coach-es

23. If the Noun ends in *y* and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is formed by changing the *y* into *ies*:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Duty	dut-ies	Army	arm-ies
Fly	fl-ies	Lady	lad-ies

But if the final *y* is preceded by a *vowel*, as in *ay*, *ey*, or *oy*, the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the Singular, in accordance with the general rule given in § 22:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Day	day-s	Monkey	monkey-s
Play	play-s	Chimney	chimney-s
Key	key-s	Toy	toy-s
Journey	journey-s	Boy	boy-s
Valley	valley-s	Joy	joy-s

24. If the Noun ends in *o* and the *o* is preceded by a *consonant*, the Plural is generally (not always) formed by adding *es* to the Singular:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Cargo	cargo-es	Mango	mango-es
Hero	hero-es	Potato	potato-es
Buffalo	buffalo-es	Echo	echo-es
Motto	motto-es	Negro	negro-es

But if the *o* is preceded by a *vowel*, the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the Singular:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Folio	folio-s	Hindoo	Hindoo-s
Studio	studio-s	Bamboo	bamboo-s

25. If the Noun ends in *f* or *fe*, the Plural is generally formed by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Loaf	loa- <i>ves</i>	Thief	thie- <i>ves</i>
Wife	wi- <i>ves</i>	Half	hal- <i>ves</i>
Wolf	wol- <i>ves</i>	Myself	oursel- <i>ves</i>
Knife	kni- <i>ves</i>	Shelf	shel- <i>ves</i>
Life	liv- <i>es</i>	Leaf	lea- <i>ves</i>
Calf	cal- <i>ves</i>	Sheaf	shea- <i>ves</i>

Exceptions.

(a) Some Nouns, ending in *f*, form the Plural by simply adding *s* (in accordance with the general rule given in § 22) :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Reef	reef- <i>s</i>	Dwarf	dwarf- <i>s</i>
Chief	chief- <i>s</i>	Turf	turf- <i>s</i>
Roof	roof- <i>s</i>	Cliff	cliff- <i>s</i>
Hoof	hoof- <i>s</i>	Gulf	gulf- <i>s</i>
Proof	proof- <i>s</i>	Grief	grief- <i>s</i>

(b) There are three Nouns ending in *fe* which form the Plural by simply adding *s* :—

Safe—safe-*s*; strife—strife-*s*; fife—fife-*s*.

(c) There are eight Nouns in common use, which form the Plural by a change in the middle of the word :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Louse	lice
Foot	feet	Mouse	mice
Goose	geese	Dormouse	dormice

(d) There are three Nouns which form the Plural in *en* :—

Ox—ox-*en*; child—childr-*en*; brother—brethr-*en*.

The word "cow" has two plurals—"cows" or "kine."

(e) Some Nouns have the same form in the Plural as in the Singular :—

Deer	dozen	fish	apparatus
Sheep	score	furniture	heathen

(f) Some Nouns have no Singular at all. The following is a list of those most commonly used :—

Arms (weapons)	Entrails	Pincers	Wages
Ashes	Fetters	Scissors	Tidings
Bowels	Goods	Spectacles	News
Dregs	Lungs	Thanks	Means

N.B.—The words *news* and *means*, though they are really Plural, are generally used as Singulars:—

“*This news* gives me much grief.” “*By this means* we shall all escape.”

§ 4. CASE.

26. That form of the noun, which shows in what relation the noun stands to some other word, is called its **Case**.

27. Nouns in English are said to have three cases—(1) the *Nom'-in-a'-tive*; (2) the *Ob-je-c'-tive*; (3) the *Pos-ses'-sive*.

28. The **Nominative** case is so called, because it *names* the person or thing, which performs or suffers the action expressed by the verb.

“The man killed a rat.” Here the verb “killed” expresses the action of killing. Who performed this action? The man. Therefore “man” is in the **Nominative** case.

“The earth is moistened by rain.” Here the verb “is moistened” expresses the action of being moistened or made wet. What thing suffers this action? The earth. Therefore “earth” is in the **Nominative** case.

Thus to find out the **Nominative** case in a sentence, you must take the verb and ask yourself: “*Who or what does this?*” or “*who or what suffers this?*” The answer to this question will be a noun or pronoun in the **Nominative** case.

This noun or pronoun is called the **Subject** of the sentence.

29. The **Objective** case is so called, because it denotes the *object*, towards which the Verb or the Preposition is directed.

“The man killed a *rat*.” What is the object towards which the action of the verb is here directed? A rat. Therefore “rat” is in the **Objective** case.

“The earth is moistened by *rain*.” What is the object

to which the preposition "by" here relates? Rain. Therefore "rain" is in the Objective case.

30. The **Possessive** case is so called, because it denotes the *possessor* or owner of anything.

"The rat's tail." "The man's head." What animal is the owner of the tail? The rat. Who is the owner of the head? The man. Therefore "rat's" and "man's" are in the Possessive case.

31. The Possessive case is formed by adding 's (which is called *a-pos'-tro-phe' s*) to the noun; as—

Singular—man's.

Plural—men's.

But if the plural ends in *s*, or if the last syllable of the singular begins and ends in *s*, the Possessive case is formed by simply adding the apostrophe.

Singular—Moses' Laws.

Plural—the horses' tails.

N.B.—(a) The Possessive case is chiefly used when the noun denotes some *living* thing.

The *rat's* tail; the *horse's* back; the *man's* head; the *boy's* book.

When the noun denotes anything *without life*, possession is almost always expressed by the preposition "of."

"The roof *of* the house"; not "the house's roof."

"The moisture *of* rain"; not "the rain's moisture."

(b) The Possessive is the only case indicated by a change in the *form* of the noun.

The Nominative and Objective cases of nouns are not indicated by a change of *form*, but must be understood by their position in the sentence. A noun in the Nominative case (as you have been told already) is the subject to the verb; a noun in the Objective case is the object either to some verb in the Active voice or to some preposition.

Parsing Model (Nouns).

(a) *Boys learn grammar in the class.*

Boys—Common noun, plural number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "learn."

Learn—Verb.

Grammar—Abstract noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, object to the verb “learn.”

In—Preposition, having “class” for its object.

The—Adjective qualifying “class.”

Class—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition “in.”

(b) *Cow's milk is often drunk by young children.*

Cow's—Common noun, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case.

Milk—Noun of material, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb “is drunk.”

Often—Adverb.

Is drunk—Verb.

By—Preposition, having “children” for its object.

Young—Adjective qualifying “children.”

Children—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition “by.”

(c) *The flock of sheep is eating grass in James's orchard.*

The—Adjective qualifying “flock.”

Flock—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb “is eating.”

Of—Preposition, having “sheep” for its object.

Sheep—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition “of.”

Is eating—Verb.

Grass—Noun of material, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb “is eating.”

In—Preposition, having “orchard” for its object.

James's—Proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case.

Orchard—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition “in.”

CHAPTER III.—ADJECTIVES.

§ 1. THE KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

32. An Adjective qualifies (or adds something to the meaning of) a noun.

33. There are altogether six different kinds of Adjectives:—

- (1) **Proper**: describing a thing by some *Proper noun*.
- (2) **of Quality**: showing *of what sort* or *in what state* a thing is.

- (3) of **Quantity** : showing *how much* of a thing is meant.
- (4) of **Number** : showing *how many* things there are or
in what numerical order any of them stands.
- (5) **Demonstrative** : showing *which* or *what* thing is meant.
- (6) **Distributive** : showing that things are taken *separately*, or *in separate lots*.

Proper Adjectives.

34. To this class belong all such Adjectives as are formed from Proper nouns :—

- The *Indian* plains = the plains of India.
- A *Chinese* pilgrim = a pilgrim from China.
- The *Shia* sect = the sect of Shias.
- A *Shivite* temple = a temple sacred to Shiva.
- A *Persian* poet = a poet of Persia.
- The *Christian* faith = the faith in Christ.
- The *Turkish* empire = the empire of the Turks.
- The *Gangetic* plain = the plain watered by the Ganges.
- The *English* language = the language of England.

Adjectives of Quality or State.

35. This kind of Adjective qualifies a noun by showing the *quality* or *state* of the thing named.

A *brave* boy, a *sick* lion, a *tame* cat, a *large* field, a *black* horse.

Here *brave* shows the quality of the boy, *sick* shows the state of the lion, etc.

Adjectives of Quantity or Degree.

36. This kind of Adjective qualifies a noun by showing the *quantity* of the thing named, that is, *how much* of the thing is intended.

There are very few adjectives of this class, and the most common examples are :—*Much*, *little*, *no*, *none*, *some*, *any*, *enough*, *sufficient*, *all*, *whole*, *half*. (The word “*any*” is used after “*not*.”)

He had *much* (a high degree of) pain.

He ate *much* (a large quantity of) bread.

He ate *little* (a small quantity of) bread.

He walked *all* the way (or the *whole* way) back.

Half a loaf is better than *no* bread.

He had *enough* or *sufficient* bread.
He did not eat *any* bread.

Adjectives of Number.

37. Numeral adjectives are subdivided into (a) Definite, and (b) Indefinite.

38. Definite Numeral adjectives denote some *exact* number. Those which show *how many* things there are (as two, three, five, etc.) are called **Car'-di-nals**.

Those which show *in what order* a thing is (as second, third, fourth, etc.) are called **Or'-di-nals**.

<i>Cardinals.</i>	<i>Ordinals.</i>	<i>Cardinals.</i>	<i>Ordinals.</i>
One	first	Eleven	eleventh
Two	second	Twelve	twelfth
Three	third	Thirteen	thirteenth
Four	fourth	Fourteen	fourteenth
Five	fifth	Fifteen	fifteenth
Six	sixth	Sixteen	sixteenth
Seven	seventh	Seventeen	seventeenth
Eight	eighth	Eighteen	eighteenth
Nine	ninth	Nineteen	nineteenth
Ten	tenth	Twenty	twentieth

39. Adjectives which denote number of some kind, without saying precisely what the number is, are called **In-def-i-nite** numerals.

The most common examples are:—*All*, *some*, *no*, *none*, *many*, *few*, *more*, *most*, *several*, *sundry*.

All men are mortal. *Some* men are rich. *No* men are brutes. *Many* men are poor. *Few* men are rich. *More* men came to-day than yesterday. *Most* men have to work for their bread. *Several* men came to see me. *Sundry* men came to my house.

Demonstrative Adjectives.

40. This kind of Adjective qualifies a noun by pointing out or “demonstrating” *which* thing is meant; as, “*this* slate,” “*yonder* house.”

Here *this* points to some slate near at hand; *yonder* points to some house at a distance.

41. When some particular thing is pointed out,

the adjective is called **Def'-i-nite De-mon'-stra-tive**; when no particular thing is pointed out, it is called **In-def'-i-nite**.

<i>Definite.</i>	<i>Indefinite.</i>
The,	A, an,
This, that, these, those,	Any, one, certain, some,
Yon, yonder, the same,	Other, another.
The other.	

The adjectives "this," "that," are used only with Singular nouns; "these" and "those" are used only with Plural nouns.

"A," "an," "another," "one," are used only with Singular nouns.

The rest can be used both with Singular and Plural nouns.

Correct the following:—

This men have come. Those horse has fallen. He built another houses. That wells are dry. These book is mine.

42. "The" is often called the Definite article; and "a" or "an" the Indefinite. But "the" is only a shorter and less precise form of "this," "that," "these," etc., and "a" or "an" is a shorter form of "one." So an article is not a distinct part of speech.

"A" is always used before a consonant; as, "a fox"; before the vowel *u*, when *u* is sounded as *yoo*; as, "a useful thing"; and before "one," as, "a one-eyed man."

"An" is used before a vowel; as, "an ox"; and before silent *h*, as, "an hour."

Distributive Adjectives.

43. A Distributive Adjective denotes that the things named in the sentence are taken *singly, separately, or in separate lots*.

The only adjectives of this class are:—*Every, each, either, neither.*

The two men had *each* a gun.
Every man present had a gun.
 You can take *either* side that you like.
 He took *neither* side.

A Noun used as an Adjective.

44. *A Noun can be used like an Adjective to qualify another noun.*

But though it is used *like* an adjective, it is still a noun, and not an adjective.

Home joys = the joys of home.
 The village watchman = the watchman of the village.
 The summer heat = the heat of summer.

If a hyphen is put between the two nouns, as in "home-joys," then we must parse "home-joys" as a *compound noun*.

If there is no hyphen, as in "home joys," then we must parse "home" as a *noun used like an adjective* to qualify "joys."

§ 2. DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

45. The degrees of comparison are three in number:—the **Pos-i-tive**, the **Com-par-a-tive**, and the **Su-per-la-tive**.

The Positive denotes the simple quality; as, "a *beautiful* horse."

The Comparative denotes a higher degree of the quality; as, "a *more beautiful* horse."

This is used when *two* things are compared, and shows which of the two possesses the quality in a higher degree than the other.

The Superlative denotes the highest degree of the quality; as, "the *most beautiful* horse." It is always preceded by the Definite article.

This is used when *one* thing is compared with *all other* things of the same kind, to show that it possesses the quality in a higher degree than all the rest.

46. Adjectives of one syllable, and some Adjectives of two syllables, can form the Comparative by adding *er* or *r*, and the Superlative by adding *est* or *st*.

(a) If the Positive ends in *two consonants*, or in *one consonant preceded by a diphthong, er and est* are added:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Small	smaller	smallest
Thick	thicker	thickest
Bold	bolder	boldest
Light	lighter	lightest
Short	shorter	shortest
Great	greater	greatest
Brief	briefer	briefest
Deep	deeper	deepest
Loud	louder	loudest

(b) If the Positive ends in *one consonant*, and the consonant is preceded by a *short vowel*, the final consonant is doubled, when *er* and *est* are added:—

Thin	thinner	thinnest
Fat	fatter	fattest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Fit	fitter	fittest
Big	bigger	biggest
Wet	wetter	wettest
Glad	gladder	gladdest

(c) If the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added, and not *er* and *est*:—

Brave	braver	bravest
Wise	wiser	wisest
True	truer	truest
Large	larger	largest
Fine	finer	finest
White	whiter	whitest
Tame	tamer	tamest

(d) If the Positive ends in *y*, and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the *y* is changed into *i*, when *er* and *est* are added:—

Happy	happier	happiest
Dry	drier	driest
Merry	merrier	merriest
Lazy	lazier	laziest

(e) But if the *y* is preceded by a *vowel*, the *y* is not changed into *i*:—

Gay	gayer	gayest
Grey	greyer	greyest

47. Some Adjectives form their Comparatives and Superlatives in an irregular way:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Many	more	most
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Fore	former	foremost, first
Hind	linder	hindmost

48. There are six words, which are Adverbs in the Positive, but Adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Forth	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest
In	inner	innermost, or inmost
Out	outer, utter	uttermost, or utmost
Be-neath	nether	nethermost
Up	upper	uppermost

Parsing Model (Adjectives and Nouns).

The man, who shot four tigers and two tigresses from an elephant's back on his first day of sport, received much praise, and won the highest honour.

The—Definite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “man.”

Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “received.”

Who—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent “man,” nominative case, subject to the verb “shot.”

Shot—Verb.

Four—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun “tigers.”

Tigers—Common noun, masculine gender, plural number, objective case, after the verb “shot.”

And—Conjunction joining the two nouns “tigers” and “tigresses.”

Two—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun “tigresses.”

Tigresses—Common noun, feminine gender, plural number, objective case, after the verb “shot.”

From—Preposition, having “back” for its object.

An—Indefinite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “elephant's.”

Elephant's—Common noun, common gender, singular number, possessive case.

Back—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, after the preposition “from.”

On—Preposition having “day” for its object.

His—Pronoun.

First—Numeral adjective, ordinal, qualifying the noun “day.”

Day—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, after the preposition “on.”

Of—Preposition, having “sport” for its object.

Sport—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, after the preposition “of.”

Received—Verb.

Much—Adjective of quantity, positive degree, qualifying the noun “praise.”

Praise—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, after the verb “received.”

And—Conjunction, joining the sentence “received,” etc., to the sentence “won,” etc.

Won—Verb.

The highest—Adjective of quality, superlative degree, qualifying the noun “honour.”

Honour—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “won.”

CHAPTER IV.—PRONOUNS.

§ 1. THE KINDS OF PRONOUNS.

49. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

To avoid repeating a noun that has been either mentioned before, or is clearly understood already, we put another word instead of it; and this word is called a Pronoun, because *pro*-means “for or instead of.”

50. The usefulness of pronouns is best seen by trying to do without them.

It would sound very awkward, besides being very tedious, if we were forced to repeat the same noun again and again. We are saved all this awkwardness by pronouns:—

John saw a snake in the garden, *this snake* John thought would hurt John, unless John killed *the snake* with a stick, *this stick* John had in John's hand.

The nouns in Italics can be replaced by pronouns; and the sentence can be much better expressed as follows:—

John saw a snake in the garden, *which he* thought would hurt *him*, unless *he* killed *it* with a stick *which he* had in *his* hand.

Here the words "he," "him," and "his" are pronouns used instead of "John"; the first "which" is used instead of "garden"; the second "which" is used instead of "stick"; and "it" is used instead of "snake."

The great use, then, of Pronouns is to save the repetition of a noun.

51. There are four different kinds of pronouns:—

- (1) **Personal**; as, *I, thou, he, she, etc.*
- (2) **Demonstrative**; as, *this, that, such, one, etc.*
- (3) **Relative**; as, *which, who, that, as, etc.*
- (4) **Interrogative**; as, *who? which? what?*

§ 2. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

52. The **Personal** Pronouns are so called, because they stand for the three persons, viz.—

- (a) The First, which denotes the person *speaking*; as, *I, we, myself.*
- (b) The Second, which denotes the person *spoken to*: as, *thou, you, thyself.*
- (c) The Third, which denotes the person or thing *spoken of*; as, *he, she, it, himself, herself, itself.*

The First Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	I	We
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	My, mine	Our, ours
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Me	Us

The Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	Thou	Ye or you
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Thy, thine	Your, yours
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Thee	You

The Third Person of all Genders.

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
<i>Nominative</i>	He	She	It	All Genders.
<i>Possessive</i>	His	Her, hers	Its	They
<i>Objective</i>	Him	Her	It	Their, theirs
				Them

53. The Possessive cases of most of these pronouns have, as you will have seen, two forms:—

	Singular.			Plural.		
<i>First Form.</i>	My	Thy	Her	Our	Your	Their
<i>Second ,</i>	Mine	Thine	Hers	Ours	Yours	Theirs

The first form is used, when it stands *before* the noun with which it is joined:—

My book, thy book, her book ; our book, your book, their book.

The second form is used, when it stands *after* the noun, or when it is separated from it by some verb coming between, or when the noun is understood:—

Your book and mine ; this book is thine ; his book and hers ; this book is ours ; this book is yours ; this book is theirs.

54. When the word "self" or "own" is added to any of the above pronouns, the pronoun is called **Re-flex'-ive**.

I. The First Person.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Objec.</i> <i>Possessive</i>	Myself My own, mine own	Ourselves Our own

II. The Second Person.

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Objec.</i> <i>Possessive</i>	Thyself Thy own, thine own	Yourselves Your own

III. *The Third Person.*

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
<i>Nom. or Objec. Possessive</i>	<i> Himself His own</i>	<i>Herself Her own</i>	<i>Itself Its own</i>	<i> Themselves Their own</i>

Put pronouns in the place of the nouns noted below :—

(a) I told *James* that the snake seen by *James* in the garden would do *James* no harm, if *James* left the *snake* alone to go the *snake's* own way.

(b) The girl went into the green field, and there the girl saw the sheep and lambs, as the sheep and lambs played about in the field.

(c) A man brought round some wild beasts for a show. Among the beasts there was an elephant. The man threw cakes at the elephant, and the elephant caught the cakes in the elephant's trunk.

(d) A dog was carrying an umbrella for the dog's master. Some boys tried to take away the umbrella from the dog. But the dog was too quick for the boys. The dog ran past the boys at full speed, and carried the umbrella safely out of the boys' reach.

(e) When the camel is being loaded, the camel kneels down so that the load may be put on the camel's back. The camel loves men, if men treat the camel well.

(f) The bees are flying towards the flowers. The bees suck the flowers, and fill the bees' bags with honey.

(g) Wolves hunt in large packs, and when wolves are pressed by hunger, wolves become very fierce, and will attack men and eat men up greedily.

(h) A horse cannot defend a horse against wolves; but a horse can run from wolves, and wolves are not always able to catch a horse.

§ 3. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

55. A Demonstrative Pronoun is so called, because it *demonstrates* or *points to* some noun going before, and is used instead of it. This noun is called the *An'-te-ce'-dent*.

56. The chief pronouns belonging to the class of **Demonstratives** are :—*this, that, these, those; one, ones, none; such.*

The student will have observed that most of these words have appeared already in the list of Demonstrative *Adjectives*. Where, then, is the difference?

When they are followed by a noun or require some noun to be understood after them, they are **Adjectives**.

When they are used as substitutes for some noun previously mentioned, and cannot have any noun either expressed or understood after them, they are **Pronouns**.

(a) He came to my house *one* day.

Here *one* is an adjective (Indefinite Demonstrative) qualifying its noun "day."

(b) Your coat is black; mine is a white *one*.

Here *one* is a pronoun, which is used instead of the previously-mentioned noun "coat," and is qualified by the adjective "white."

57. **This, that, these, those.**—The uses of these words as *pronouns*, and not as *adjectives*, can be explained under the following heads:—

(a) When two nouns have been mentioned in a previous sentence or clause, "this" has reference to the *latter*, and "that" to the *former*.

- (1) Work and play are both necessary to health; *this* (=play) gives us rest, and *that* (=work) gives us energy.
- (2) Dogs are more faithful animals than cats; *these* (=cats) attach themselves to places, and *those* (=dogs) to persons.

Observe that in the first of these sentences "*this*" does not specify *which* or *what* play is meant, and therefore it is not a Demonstrative Adjective. It is simply put as a *substitute* for the noun "play," and therefore it is a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The same explanation holds good for the other examples.

(b) The word "that," together with its Plural form "those," is used as a substitute for a single noun previously mentioned.

- (1) The air of the hills is cooler than *that* (=the air) of the plains.
- (2) The houses of the rich are larger than *those* (=the houses) of the poor.

Observe the word "that" in the first example does not qualify the noun "air" by saying *which* air or *what* air, and therefore it is not an Adjective. It stands for "air" in general and is a *substitute* for the noun "air," and therefore it is a Pronoun.

58. **One, ones, none.**—When the antecedent noun is in the Singular Number, we use "*one*"; but when the antecedent noun is Plural, we use "*ones*." "*None*" is a shortened form of "not one."

- (1) He gained a prize last year ; but he did not gain *one* (=a prize) this term. (*Singular.*)
- (2) There were six lazy boys and four industrious *ones* (=boys) in our class. (*Plural.*)
- (1) You have a book, but I have *none* (=not one or not a book).

59. **Such.**—“Such” can be substituted for a noun in either number.

- (1) He is a judge appointed to hear this case, and as *such* (=as the appointed judge) you must not speak to him before the trial. (*Singular.*)
- (2) Kings are made *such* (=kings) by law, and should be obeyed. (*Plural.*)

Examples for Practice.

Show whether the words printed in *Italics* are Demonstrative Adjectives or Demonstrative Pronouns:—

This horse is stronger than *that*.

Health is of more value than money ; *this* cannot give such true happiness as *that*.

I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.

You will repeat of this *one* day, when it is too late.

The faithfulness of a dog is greater than *that* of a cat.

Bring me *that* book, and leave *this* where it is.

The step you have taken is *one* of much risk.

The name of *that* man is Wise, and rightly is he called *such*.

Prosperous men are much exposed to flattery ; for *such* alone can be made to pay for it.

Prosperous men are not always more happy than unlucky *ones*.

A pale light, like *that* of the rising moon, begins to fringe the horizon.

Will you ride *this* horse or *that*?

A stranger could not be received twice as *such* in the same house.

The plan you have chosen does not seem to me to be a wise *one*.

One man says *this*, another *that* ; whom should I believe ?

60. **Indefinite Demonstrative Pronouns.**—Sometimes Demonstrative pronouns are used *indefinitely*,—that is, they are not used as substitutes for some noun

expressly mentioned, but for some noun which can be readily understood from the context or from idiom.

(a) **They**.—This pronoun is sometimes used for *men in general*, or some person whose name is purposely concealed.

(1) *They* say (=men in general say) that truth and honesty is the best policy.

(2) *They* told me (=some person or persons, whom I do not wish to name, told me) that you were guilty of theft.

(b) **One**.—This pronoun is often used in the sense of *any person* or *every person*.

{ *One* should take care of *one's* health =
 { *A man* (any and every man) should take care of *his* health.

§ 4. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

61. A **Rel'-a-tive** Pronoun is so called, because it *relates to* some noun or other pronoun going before.

The noun or pronoun going before is called the **An'-te-ce'-dent**.

62. The Relative pronoun is most commonly expressed by "who" or "which."

Case.	Singular and Plural.		Singular and Plural.
	Mas. and Fem.	Neuter.	
<i>Nominative</i> .	Who		Which
<i>Possessive</i> .	Whose		Whose, or of which
<i>Objective</i> .	Whom		Which

Point out the *Antecedent* to the *Relative pronouns* noted below:—

- (a) We love those persons *who* are kind to us.
- (b) The pen *whose* point was broken has been mended.
- (c) The ground *which* we dig will bear a fine crop.
- (d) That is the man *whom* we saw yesterday.
- (e) Is this a dagger *which* I see before me?
- (f) We left the house in *which* we had long lived.
- (g) He lost the box of clothes *which* I brought.
- (h) The child *whose* parents are dead is an orphan.

63. The word "who" is used only for persons,—that is, men and women; and is therefore of the masculine, feminine, or common gender.

The word "which" is used for all kinds of living things except men and women, and for things without life.

Correct the mistakes in the Relatives noted below:—

The bird *who* sings. The man *which* came. The ape *who* climbs the tree. The horse *who* carried me. The girl *which* sings.

64. A Relative pronoun is of the same number, gender, and person as the Antecedent; but in case it is dependent upon its own sentence.

Put a Relative pronoun in the place of the Personal pronouns noted below:—

- (a) This is the house; Jack built it.
- (b) This book is a good one; I read *it*.
- (c) This is the man; I read *his* book.
- (d) The boy has come; *he* lost his hat.
- (e) The girl has come; you were looking for *her*.
- (f) These are the trees; *their* leaves have fallen.
- (g) You built this house; I lived long in *it*.
- (h) These men have fled; the ox was stolen by *them*.
- (i) Look at those boys; we read in class with *them*.

After you have supplied the Relative pronoun to each of the above sentences, show in each sentence whether it is in the Nominative, Possessive, or Objective case.

65. The Relative pronoun in the Objective case can be left out, but not in the Nominative or Possessive.

Supply the Relative pronoun in the following sentences:—

- (a) The box — I bought was soon lost by him.
- (b) The man — I met to-day was an old friend.
- (c) These are the only things — I was looking for.
- (d) This is the book — I won as a prize.

Show where the Relative is left out in each of the following sentences and supply it:—

- (a) Be so kind as to pick up the book I dropped.
- (b) The girl you teach is very clever.
- (c) Have you seen the boy I sent for?
- (d) This is the house we lived in.
- (e) These are the wolves I shot to-day.

66. The word "that" is often used for "who," "whom," or "which," but never for "whose":—

- (a) This is the house *that* Jack built.
- (b) The man *that* we were looking for has come.
- (c) He *that* fights and runs away
Will live to fight another day.
- (d) The house *that* we lived in has fallen down.
- (e) The horse *that* carried me here is lame.
- (f) The boy *that* you promoted is clever.

In each of the above sentences put "who," "whom," or "which" for "that."

67. Another word used for a Relative pronoun is "as," and this is always preceded by "such" or "the same." It may stand either for a Nominative or an Objective case, but not for a Possessive:—

- (a) This is not *the same* book *as* yours.
- (b) He is not *such* a clever student *as* you are.

68. The word "but" (though it is in reality a conjunction) can be used in the sense of "who not" or "which not."

- (a) There was no one present, *but* saw (who did not see) the deed.
- (b) There is no vice so simple, *but* may (which may not) become serious in time.

§ 5. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

69. An In'-ter-rog'-a-tive pronoun is one which asks a question.

- (a) *Who* spoke? (Nominative case to the verb.)
- (b) Of *whom* did he speak? (Objective after preposition.)
- (c) *What* did he say? (Objective after verb "say.")
- (d) *Which* of these boys has won the prize? (Which boy of these boys, etc.) (Nominative to verb.)
- (e) *Which* book is the best? (Nominative to verb.)
- (f) *Whose* book is that? (Possessive case.)

Parsing Model (Pronouns and Nouns).

I heard my father speak well of the man whom he brought to his house.

I—Personal pronoun, first person, common gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “heard.”

Heard—Verb.

My—Personal pronoun, first person, common gender, possessive case.

Father—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, objective case, after the verb “heard.”

Speak—Verb.

Well—Adverb qualifying the verb “speak.”

Of—Preposition having “man” for its object.

The—Definite Demonstrative adjective qualifying the noun “man.”

Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, objective case, after the preposition “of.”

Whom—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent “man,” objective case, after the verb “brought.”

He—Personal pronoun, third person, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “brought.”

Brought—Verb.

To—Preposition, having “house” for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, third person, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case.

House—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, after the preposition “to.”

-CHAPTER V.—VERBS. •

§ 1. THE KINDS OF VERBS.

70. A **Verb** is a word by means of which we can *say* something about a person or thing.

71. The person or thing about which something is said is called the **Subject** :—

(1) *He* sat in the shade.

(2) *Whether we shall succeed or not* is uncertain.

In example (1) the Subject is the pronoun “he.” In example (2) the Subject is the sentence “whether we shall succeed or not.”

72. Verbs are subdivided into three main classes:—

- I. Transitive.
- II. Intransitive.
- III. Auxiliary.

Verbs which are not used in all the moods and tenses are called "Defective."

73. *A verb is Transitive, if the action does not stop with the subject, but passes from the subject to an object:—*

- (1) The man killed a snake.
- (2) I do not know whether he has come.

In example (1) "snake" is the Object to the verb "killed." In example (2) the sentence "whether he has come" is the Object to the verb "know."

74. *A verb is Intransitive, when the action stops with the subject, and does not pass from the subject to an object:—*

Men sleep to preserve life.

Sleep what? This is nonsense. No object can come after such a verb as "sleep," and therefore "sleep" is an Intransitive verb.

75. An **Auxiliary** verb is one which helps to form the tenses or modify the sense of some other verb; as—

I *may* sleep. I *will* work. You *can* swim. *Did* you speak?
He *should* learn. He *would* learn, if he *could*.

Note.—The verb that is helped or modified by the Auxiliary is called the *Principal* verb. Thus "sleep" (in the first of the above examples) is the Principal verb, and "may" is the Auxiliary.

76. There are some verbs which, without any change of form, can be Transitive or Intransitive according to the sense; as—

We must now *return* (go back) to our house. (*Intransitive.*)
We must *return* (give back) the book at once. (*Transitive.*)

Intransitive.
The tree *shakes* with the wind.
He *burnt* with rage.
Let us *stop* here a little.
School *opens* at ten o'clock.
The day *breaks* at six.

Transitive.
The wind *shakes* the tree.
The fire *burnt* up the house.
Do not *stop* me.
They *open* the doors at nine.
A man *breaks* stones with a hammer.

Intransitive.

He *drew* near to me.
 Move on a little faster.
 School *broke up* at three.
 The mouse *steals* into its hole.
 Let us *bathe* here.
 The ball *rolls* down the hill.
 The coat is *hanging up*.
 The monsoon has *burst*.
 Bats *hide* during the day.
 He *turned* to me and spoke.
 He *doubted* about this.
 The ship *drives* before the storm.
 Rain *drops* from the sky.

Transitive.

The ox *drew* this cart.
 Move away this stone.
 He *broke up* the meeting.
 The mouse *steals* food.
 They *bathe* him in warm water.
 He *rolls* a ball down the hill.
 He is *hanging up* the coat.
 He *burst* the door open.
 Bad men *hide* their faults.
 He *turned* me out of the room.
 He *doubted* the truth of my word.
 The storm *drives* the ship.
 They *drop* the boat into the water.

77. There are a few words which have one form for the Transitive and another for the Intransitive:—

Intransitive.

The tree *falls* on the ground.
 The sun will *rise* at six.
 The cow *lies* on the grass.
 We must not *sit* here.
 He *dives* into the water.
 The enemy *quailed*.
 Water *drips* from the jug.

Transitive.

He *falls* the tree with an axe.
 I cannot *raise* or *rouse* this boy.
 The man *lays* down his coat.
 He *set* the books in order.
 He *dips* the sponge into the water.
 He *quelled* the enemy.
 He *drops* water from the jug.

The Transitive verbs in the above examples are sometimes called the *causal* forms of the Intransitive ones:—

He falls=he causes to fall.
 He raises=he causes to rise.
 He lays=he causes to lie.
 He sets=he causes to sit.
 He dips=he causes to dive.
 He quells=he causes to quail.
 He drops=he causes to drip.

78. The Double Object.—*Some Transitive verbs take two Objects after them, one of which is the name of some thing, and the other of some person.*

The *thing* named is called the *Direct* object; the *person* named is called the *Indirect* object.

Most of the verbs which take two Objects are shown in the following examples:—

Bring me that book. I *forgave* him his faults. We *allowed* him two rupees. We *envy* him his good luck. He *taught* me English.

He *refused* me the loan of a book. I have *asked* you a question. You *answered* me nothing. They *gave* the boy a prize. They *sent* the boy a book. They *lent* me ten rupees. He *owed* me twelve rupees. The man *told* me the story. He *showed* me the way. He *left* them all his wealth. They *played* him a trick. He *promised* me his help. He *saved* me much grief. They *sold* him two horses. He *bought* me one horse.

Point out the Direct and Indirect objects in each of the above sentences.

79. An Intransitive verb, which makes a complete sense, is said to be a verb of **Complete Predication**.

The boy *laughs*. Lions *roar*. All men *sleep*. Kittens *mew*. Snakes *crawl*.

80. An Intransitive verb, which does not make a complete sense, but requires some word or words to be added for this purpose, is said to be a verb of **Incomplete Predication**.

The word or phrases so added is called the **Complement**, and this may be in seven different forms, as below:—

<i>Subject and Verb.</i>	<i>Complement.</i>	
A horse is	an animal	<i>Noun.</i>
Our dog has grown	old	<i>Adjective.</i>
That man seems	tired	<i>Participle.</i>
A thief always lives	in fear	<i>Prep. with Obj.</i>
The child does not seem	to sleep	<i>Infin. Verb.</i>
The results will soon be	out	<i>Adverb.</i>
Our hope is	that prices will fall	<i>Clause.</i>

81. A Transitive verb, which does not make a complete sense by mentioning its object, but requires some Complement to be added after the object, is called **Factitive**.

The Complement to a Factitive verb may be in the same seven forms as the Complement to an Intransitive verb.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Complement.</i>	
They	made	him	king	<i>Noun.</i>
I	considered	the book	of no use	<i>Prep. with Obj.</i>
He	put	the engine	out of order	<i>Prep. with Obj.</i>
That grief	drove	him	mad	<i>Adjective.</i>
They	appointed	him	a judge	<i>Noun.</i>
They	ordered	him	to be punished	<i>Infinitive.</i>
They	found	the man	asleep	<i>Adverb.</i>
We	have made	him	what he is	<i>Clause.</i>

Note.—When the Complement comes after an Intransitive verb, it is called a **Subjective** Complement, because it relates to the Subject.

When the Complement comes after a Transitive verb, it is called an **Objective** Complement, because it relates to the Object.

82. *The Relative pronoun as Object to a Transitive verb is often left out in English.*

This is so common, that the student, on being asked whether the verb before him is Transitive or Intransitive, should be always on his guard, and think before he speaks.

The books I bought cost three rupees.

Here "books" is the Subject to the verb "cost"; and "which" is the Object (understood) to the Transitive verb "bought."

The house he occupied last year has fallen down.

Here "house" is the Subject to the verb "has fallen," and "which" is the Object (understood) to the Transitive verb "occupied."

Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and say what word is the Subject and what the Object to each of them. If the Object is omitted in any instance, supply it:—

The box I had was soon lost. These are the very things I wanted. The man I met to-day was an old friend. Where is the book that I won as a prize? Be so kind as to pick up the book I dropped. The girl you teach is very clever. Have you seen the boy I sent for? This is the house we occupied last year. Look at the four wolves I have shot to-day.

§ 2. MOOD, NUMBER AND PERSON, TENSE, VOICE.

Mood.

83. A **Mood** denotes the *mode* or *manner* of the action expressed by the verb.

84. There are four Moods, three of which are called the Fi'-nite moods, and the fourth the In-fin'-itive.

(a) The three Finite moods :—

1. In-dic'-a-tive.
2. Im-per'-a-tive.
3. Sub-junc'-tive.

(b) The In-fin'-i-tive mood.

85. In the Indicative mood we *assert* or *indicate* an action as a fact ; as, "He comes," "he came," "he will come."

In the Imperative we *command* or *advise* an action ; as, "Come thou," "come you," or "come."

In the Subjunctive mood we *suppose* or *desire* an action ; as, "If he come or should come." "May he come!"

The Infinitive mood is usually formed by putting "to" before the verb ; as, "to come."

Point out the Mood of each of the verbs noted below :—

Come and tell me what you have heard. If you should be at home when I call at your house, I shall be glad. He came to my house at four o'clock in the afternoon. You will be killed, if that stone falls upon your head. Why were these books brought to me? My father will not return for some time. If he should return to-morrow, I shall be much surprised. Will you come soon to see me? To stay awake at night is bad for health. He told them to call for him at four o'clock. Put away the books, and shut the door of the room.

Number and Person.

86. **Number and Person.**—The number and person of a Finite verb depend upon the nature of its Subject.

(a) If the subject is Singular, the verb must be Singular ; as, "Rain *is* falling."

(b) If the subject is Plural, the verb must be Plural ; as, "Raindrops *are* falling."

(c) If the subject is in the First person, the verb must be in the First person ; as, "I *love*," "we *come*."

(d) If the subject is in the Second person, the verb must be in the Second person ; as, "Thou *lovest*," "you *come*."

(e) If the subject is in the Third person, the verb must be in the Third person ; as, "He loves," "the teacher has come."

Hence arises the following rule :—*A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject.*

Point out the Number and Person of every verb in the following sentences :—

The cow *is* a quiet and useful animal. Oxen *draw* the plough. I *see* four men coming. They *see* the sun rising. We *see* the hills in the distance. Thou *art* the wisest man in the room. The horse *carries* its rider. Four men *carry* the palanquin. That the horse is lame *is seen* by all of us. How to do this *was not understood*.

Tense.

87. **Tense** denotes the *time* of an action.

The verb may tell you—

(a) That an action *is done* at the Present time ; as, "He *sees* a star."

(b) That an action *was done* in the Past time ; as, "He *saw* a star."

(c) That an action *will be done* in the Future time ; as, "He *will see* a star."

A verb, then, has three main times or tenses, viz. the Present, the Past, and the Future.

88. To each tense there are four different forms :—

I. **Indefinite**, which denotes Present, Past, or Future time in its simplest form ; as, "I *love*," "I *loved*," "I *shall love*."

II. **Continuous**, which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is still *continuing* or not yet finished ; as, "I *am loving*," "I *was loving*," "I *shall be loving*." (Hence this is sometimes called the Imperfect.)

III. **Perfect**, which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is in a complete or *perfect* state ; as, "I *have loved*," "I *had loved*," "I *shall have loved*."

IV. **Perfect Continuous**, which combines the meanings of the two preceding forms ; as, "I *have been loving*," "I *had been loving*," "I *shall have been loving*."

Voice.

89. A *Transitive* verb has two voices, the **Active** and the **Passive**.

90. A verb is said to be in the Active voice, when the subject *acts* or is active.

A verb is said to be in the Passive voice, when the subject does not do the action, but *suffers* the action done by something or by some one.

(a) *Active Voice*.—"Rám kills a snake." Here Rám (the subject) *acts*; that is, he does something; he kills a snake.

(b) *Passive Voice*.—"A snake is killed by Rám." Here a snake (the subject) *suffers* the action done to it by Rám.

§ 3. INDICATIVE MOOD.

91. The three Tenses and twelve forms of a verb in the **Indicative** mood are shown in the following table:—

I. Active Voice.

	<i>Form.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>
1.	<i>Indefinite</i>	I love	I loved	I shall love
2.	<i>Continuous</i>	I am loving	I was loving	I shall be loving
3.	<i>Perfect</i>	I have loved	I had loved	I shall have loved
4.	<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	I have been loving	I had been loving	I shall have been loving

II. Passive Voice.

	<i>Form.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>
1.	<i>Indefinite</i>	I am loved	I was loved	I shall be loved
2.	<i>Continuous</i>	I am being loved	I was being loved	(Wanting)
3.	<i>Perfect</i>	I have been loved	I had been loved	I shall have been loved
4.	<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	(Wanting)	(Wanting)	(Wanting)

92. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined in the following form, for all numbers and persons:—

I. Active Voice.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I love	We love
2nd „	Thou lovest	Ye or you love
3rd „	He loves or loveth	They love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	I loved	We loved
2 nd ,,	Thou lovedst	Ye or you loved
3 rd ,,	He loved	They loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	I shall love	We shall love
2 nd ,,	Thou wilt love	They or you will love
3 rd ,,	He will love	They will love

N.B.—(1) The Singular forms of the Second person (thou lovest, thou lovedst, thou wilt love) are now seldom used except in poetry. They have been superseded by the Plural forms (you love, you loved, and you will love), which, though Plural in fact, are used in a Singular sense as well as in a Plural sense; as, "Have you come, my son?" "Have you," being addressed to "son," is used in a Singular sense, and may be parsed as Singular.

(2) The form "he loveth" is now seldom used except in poetry.

II. Passive Voice.*Present Tense.*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	I am loved	We are loved
2 nd ,,	Thou art loved	Ye or you are loved
3 rd ,,	He is loved	They are loved

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	I was loved	We were loved
2 nd ,,	Thou wast loved	Ye or you were loved
3 rd ,,	He was loved	They were loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	I shall be loved	We shall be loved
2 nd ,,	Thou wilt be loved	Ye or you will be loved
3 rd ,,	He will be loved	They will be loved

93. The Present tense in the Active voice can also be formed by "do," and the Past by "did." The words *do* and *did* belong to the class of "auxiliary" or helping verbs.

This form is used for three purposes:—

(a) For the sake of emphasis; as, "I do love," "I did love."

(b) For the sake of bringing in the word "not"; as,

“I do not love” (which is better than saying “I love not”);
 “I did not love” (which is better than “I loved not”).
 (c) For the sake of asking a question; as, “Does he love?” “Why did he love?” “Did he not love?”

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I do love	We do love
2nd „	Thou dost love	Ye or you do love
3rd „	He does love	They do love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I did love	We did love
2nd „	Thou didst love	Ye or you did love
3rd „	He did love	They did love

94. Whenever *do* or *did* is used for asking a question, the noun or pronoun that stands as the subject to the verb is placed after the *do* or *did*, and not before it; as—

Do I love? Did he not love? (*Question.*)

But whenever *do* or *did* is used for the sake of emphasis or with *not*, the noun or pronoun stands before the verb, and not after it; as—

I do not love. (*Negative.*) I do love. (*Emphasis.*)

Correct the following:—

Loved he not? Came he? He not saw this book. He reads not his book with care. They not slept well last night. They broke not the slate, but he broke it. You not read your book well. This letter came for me to-day or yesterday? It came not to-day, but yesterday. You not finished reading the letter?

95. When a sentence is changed from the Active form to the Passive, the object to the Active verb becomes the subject to the Passive verb.

Object to Active Verb.

The king expelled the thief.
 We drove him out of the house.
 We need six camels for our work.
 Brutes cannot make tools.
 I have lost six sheep.
 God will bless good men.
 Have you shut the door?
 I am cooking food.

Subject to Passive Verb.

The thief was expelled by the king.
 He was driven out by us.
 Six camels are needed by us.
 Tools cannot be made by brutes.
 Six sheep have been lost by me.
 Good men will be blessed by God.
 Has the door been shut by you?
 Food is being cooked by me.

(a) *Change the following sentences from the Active to the Passive:—*

A cat chased a mouse, and a dog chased the cat. He brought six apples for me. The lower animals do not need tools. But they possess limbs as useful to them as tools. Man alone knows how to make tools. God has given no such mind to other animals. We must find out the reasons of things. This king conquered that. Who made you and all the world?

(b) *Change the following sentences from Passive to Active:—*

The shops are closed by all the dealers. This book was brought here by my servant. The roof of the house was blown off by the wind. The ripening wheat was destroyed by a storm of hail. The soil of India is made fertile by the annual rains. That fine tree was split by lightning. The walls of the house were cracked by an earthquake in several places. The men were ordered by the king's messengers to go away. Four men must be sent by us to the market. How to spell, read, and write is known by man alone. His death was bewailed by all of us.

§ 4. IMPERATIVE MOOD.

96. The **Imperative** mood is used only in the Present Tense, and only in the Second person. The Personal pronoun that forms the subject is usually left out.

Singular.

Speak, or speak thou. *Speak, or speak you, or speak ye.*

97. The chief uses of the Imperative mood are to express (a) *command*, (b) *precept*, or (c) *entreaty*.

(a) *Command:—*

Speak,—or I fire.

Awake, arise, or be for ever fallen.—Milton.

(b) *Precept or Invitation:—*

Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways and be wise.—

Old Testament.

Judge not, that ye be not judged.—New Testament.

(c) *Entreaty or Prayer:—*

Give us this day our daily bread, and forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us.—Lord's Prayer.

Father, forgive them; for they know not what they do.—New Testament.

98. The Imperative mood is sometimes used to

express a **supposition**, in which case it has the same force as the Subjunctive mood:—

*Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves
(=If you take care of the pence, the pounds will, etc.).*

99. When the word "not" is used with an Imperative verb, the Imperative is usually formed by the Auxiliary "do."

<i>Older Form.</i>	<i>Corrected Form.</i>
Fear not.	Do not fear.
Come not here.	Do not come here.
Taste not that food.	Do not taste that food.

100. Sometimes, even when the verb is Affirmative, the Imperative is formed by "do," for the sake of giving more force or emphasis to an entreaty. But this occurs only in colloquial English.

*Do come out with me, before the rain begins to fall.
Do leave off making that noise.*

§ 5. SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

101. The **Subjunctive** mood is so called, because it is generally *subjoined* to some other sentence, and seldom stands alone.

102. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined as follows in the Active voice:—

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I love	If we love
2 nd ,,"	If thou love (<i>not loves</i>)	If you love
3 rd ,,"	If he love (<i>not loves</i>)	If they love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I loved	If we loved
2 nd ,,"	If thou lovedst	If you loved
3 rd ,,"	If he loved	If they loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I should love	If we should love
2 nd ,,"	If thou shouldst love	If ye or you should love
3 rd ,,"	If he should love	If they should love

But the forms *thou love*, *he love*, and *thou loved* are going more and more out of use; and the forms of the Indicative mood are now generally used in their place; as, "if thou lovest" (instead of "if *thou love*"); "if *he loves*" (instead of "if *he love*"); "if *thou lovedst*" (instead of "if *thou loved*").

103. The verb "*to be*" has retained the Subjunctive forms in a more marked and complete way than any other verb:—

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I be	If we be
2 nd ,,	If thou be	If ye or you be
3 rd ,,	If he be	If they be

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I were	If we were
2 nd ,,	If thou wert	If ye or you were
3 rd ,,	If he were	If they were

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 st Person	If I should be	If we should be
2 nd ,,	If thou shouldst be	If ye or you should be
3 rd ,,	If he should be	If they should be

The forms of the Past and Future tenses are still in common use. The forms of the Present tense are not so common, and those of the Indicative mood are sometimes used instead of them.

104. The forms for the Continuous and Perfect tenses in the Active voice are shown below:—

	<i>Continuous.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loving	If I have loved
Past	If I were loving	If I had loved
Future	If I should be loving	If I should have loved

105. In the Passive voice the only tenses of the Subjunctive mood that are in ordinary use are the Indefinite and the Perfect:—

	<i>Indefinite.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loved	If I have been loved
Past	If I were loved	If I had been loved
Future	If I should be loved	If I should have been loved

The Uses of the Subjunctive Mood.

106. The Indicative mood expresses *a fact*; the Imperative mood expresses *an order*; the Subjunctive mood expresses anything except a fact or an order, such as *a purpose*, *a wish*, or *a condition*.

(1) *A Purpose.*

When the Subjunctive mood is used in the sense of purpose, the verb is preceded by the conjunction *that* or *lest* (lest = that not) and the tenses are formed by the help of the Auxiliary verbs *may*, *might*, or *should*.

	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive; Purpose.</i>
Present	I give you a prize,	that you <i>may</i> work well again.
or		lest you <i>should</i> lose it.
Future	I shall keep your book,	{ that you <i>may</i> not lose it.
		{ that you <i>might</i> work well again.
Past	I gave you a prize,	{ lest you <i>should</i> lose it.
	I kept your book,	{ that you <i>might</i> not lose it.

(2) *A Wish.*

Thy kingdom *come* = *may* thy kingdom *come*.

Thy will *be done* = *may* thy will *be done*.

I wish that he *were* as clever as his sister.

God *save* the queen. Long *live* the king.

(3) *Condition and its Consequence.*

When the verb expresses a *condition*, it is generally preceded by the conjunction "if." The verb expressing the *consequence* is expressed by the auxiliary "would."

	<i>First Sentence: Condition.</i>	<i>Second Sentence: Consequence.</i>
Present	If he <i>should</i> meet me,	he <i>would</i> know me at once.
or	If I <i>were</i> in his place,	I <i>would</i> pay the rupee.
Future	If he <i>had met</i> me,	he <i>would have known</i> me.
Past	If I <i>had been</i> in his place,	I <i>would have paid</i> the rupee.

Sometimes the *if* is left out. In this case the *should*, or the *had*, or the *were* must be placed before its subject:—

Present	Should he <i>meet</i> me,	he <i>would</i> know me at once.
or	Were I in his place,	I <i>would</i> pay the rupee.
Future	Had he <i>met</i> me,	he <i>would have known</i> me.
Past	Had I <i>been</i> in his place,	I <i>would have paid</i> the rupee.

Sometimes the conditional sentence is left out or understood, and only the Consequent sentence is expressed:—

He *would* never agree to that ("if you asked him," understood).
He *would* be very thankful to you for this kindness ("if you were to do him the kindness," understood).

§ 6. INFINITIVE MOOD.

107. The **Infinitive** mood is not preceded by any Subject, and therefore it has *no number* and *no person*.

108. The forms of the Infinitive mood are four in number, and all are in the Present tense:—

<i>Form.</i>	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	To send	To be sent
<i>Continuous</i>	To be sending	(Wanting)
<i>Perfect</i>	To have sent	To have been sent
<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	To have been sending	(Wanting)

There is no Past and no Future tense to the Infinitive mood.

The Future tense of the Infinitive can be expressed only by some phrase; as "to be about to send"; "to be on the point of sending"; "to be going to send."

109. **Omission of "to."**—The word "to" is usually the sign of the Infinitive mood. But there are some verbs which take the Infinitive after them without the "to."

(a) Most of these verbs occur in the following examples:—

I *hear* thee speak (to speak) of a better land.
I *saw* him take (to take) aim with his bow.
You *need* not send (to send) those books to me.
I *feel* the cold air strike (to strike) against my face.
He *dared* not say (to say) this in open day.
He *made* me come (to come) and sit (to sit) beside him.
I *let* him go (to go) back to his own house.
They *bade* me tell (to tell) them the right road.
We *watched* him go (to go) and come (to come).
We *beheld* the fish rise (to rise).
I have *known* him laugh (to laugh) for nothing.

(b) The "to" is also left out after all the Auxiliary verbs, as may be seen below:—

I shall go	equals	I intend to go.
I can go	„	I am able to go.
I could go	„	I was able to go.
I should go	„	I ought to go.
I must go	„	I am compelled to go.
I may go	„	I am permitted to go.
I might go	„	I was permitted to go.
I will go	„	I am willing to go.
I would go	„	I was willing to go, or, I used to go.
I do go	„	I go.
I did go	„	I went.

The Uses of the Infinitive Mood.

110. There are two main uses of the Infinitive mood:—

- I. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive.
- II. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.

111. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive may be used (a) as the Subject to a verb, (b) as the Object to a Transitive verb, or (c) as the Complement to an Auxiliary verb, or an Intransitive verb, or a Factitive verb.

(a) Subject to a verb:—

To err (=error) is human; *to forgive* (=forgiveness) is divine.
To die (=death) is the common lot of man.

(b) Object to a Transitive verb:—

They expect *to succeed* (=success). A good man does not fear *to die* (=death).

(c) Complement to Auxiliary, Intransitive, or Factitive verbs:—

He appears *to be* a wise man. (*Intrans.*)
We considered him *to be* the best in the class. (*Factit.*)

I can *go*; I should *go*; I may *go*; I might *go*, etc. (*Auxil.*)

112. The Gerundial Infinitive qualifies a verb, a noun, or an adjective, and usually in the sense of purpose:—

(a) After a verb:—

He came *to see* (=for the purpose of seeing) the sport.
The book was sent *to be given* (=for the purpose of being given) as a prize.

(b) After a noun:—

We have no water *to drink*.

Give him a chair *to sit on*.

Here "to drink" qualifies the noun "water" as an adjective would do, by showing the *purpose* for which the water will be used, and hence the kind of water. "To sit on" qualifies the noun "chair" in the same kind of way.

(c) After an adjective:—

He is quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.

"Quick" in what respect or for what purpose? To hear.

"Slow" in what respect or for what purpose? To speak.

Note.—The Gerundial Infinitive, when it comes after a verb or after an adjective, is sometimes used in the sense of *cause* or *reason*, and not always in the sense of *purpose* :—

He wept *to see* that shocking sight.

I was sorry *to hear* such bad news.

"Wept" from what cause? At seeing that shocking sight.

"Sorry" for what reason? At hearing such bad news.

113. There are two more uses of the Infinitive, which are rather common:—

(a) For the sake of bringing in a **Parenthesis**,—that is, a phrase inserted into the middle of a sentence for explaining something:—

I am,—*to tell* you the truth,—quite tired of this work.

They were thunderstruck,—*so to speak*,—on hearing this news.

Note.—In all such cases, the Infinitive is *absolute*; that is, it stands by itself, and is not connected grammatically with any other word in the sentence. This must be parsed as the Gerundial, and not as the Simple Infinitive, since it conveys, however imperfectly, the idea of *purpose*.

(b) As a form of **exclamation**:—

To think that he shall have told so many lies!

Foolish fellow! *to suppose* that he would be pardoned!

Note.—Here, as in the previous example, the Infinitive is *absolute*. This must be parsed as the Simple or Noun-Infinitive, because it is more like a *Noun*, and conveys no idea of purpose.

§ 7. PARTICIPLES OR VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

114. A **Participle** is so called because it is *partly* a verb and *partly* an adjective.

This double meaning of Participle is very well described by calling it a "Verbal adjective"; for a Participle is not one part of speech, but two combined,—a verb and adjective in one.

115. The forms of the different Participles are shown below:—

Transitive Verbs.

	Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
Present or Continuous .	Loving	Being loved
Past	(Wanting)	Loved
Perfect	Having loved	Having been loved

Intransitive Verbs.

Present or Continuous .	Fading
Past	Faded
Perfect	Having faded

116. A Participle has two main uses:—

- (1) As part of a Finite verb.
- (2) As an Adjective qualifying some noun.

I. As part of a Finite Verb.

117. The student will have seen already that many of the tenses of English verbs are formed with the help of the Past or Present Participle.

Thus all the tenses of the Passive voice are formed out of the verb "to be" followed by the Past Participle; as "I am loved," "I was loved," "I shall be loved."

Again, all the Continuous tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb "to be" followed by the Present Participle; as, "I am loving," "I was loving," "I shall be loving."

Again, the Perfect tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb "to have" followed by the Past Participle; as, "I have loved," "I had loved," "I shall have loved."

II.—*As an Adjective.*

118. An adjective, as you will remember, is a word used to qualify a noun or pronoun.

A Participle (or Verbal adjective) does the very same thing; as, "a fading flower," "a faded flower." Here "fading" or "faded" are participles of the verb "fade," and they qualify the noun "flower."

Point out the noun or pronoun qualified by the Participle (or Verbal adjective) in each of the following sentences:—

Being tired of work, the men went home. The *returned* soldier was received gladly by his parents. *Having been warned* of the danger, I stayed there no longer. *Grazing* on the fresh grass, the lambs became strong. A *fighting* horse gives much trouble to its master. *Having said* all that I knew, I wished him good morning.

119. A Participle or Verbal adjective can, like ordinary adjectives, be qualified by an adverb; as—

The man is in an *almost* dying state. Having died *suddenly* he left no will.

Here the adverb *almost* qualifies the Participle "dying"; and the adverb *suddenly* qualifies "having died."

120. A Participle or Verbal adjective can, like ordinary adjectives, have three degrees of comparison, and these are formed by *more* and *most*; as—

This flower is *more* faded than that. That song is the *most* pleasing that I have ever heard.

121. Since a Participle is a verb as well as an adjective, it can be followed by an object, as the Finite moods are, if the verb is Transitive:—

Having finished *his work* he went home.

Here "work" is the object after the Transitive verb "to finish."

Point out the object after all the Participles in the following sentences, and show which objects are Direct and which are Indirect:—

Having been asked a loan, he refused to give it. The ploughman returned home in the evening, *treading* the ground with weary steps. *Having given* me the prize which I earned, the master praised my industry. The oxen moved slowly over the ground, *dragging* the

plough behind them. That boy there, *painting* a picture, is my brother. He hears his daughter *singing* a new song. My wife, *expecting* me to return, did not leave the house.

122. A Participle, in the Active or Passive voice, can be compounded with a noun, so as to make a compound verbal adjective; as—

Active.—“A *man-eating* tiger”; that is, a tiger which eats men. Here “man” or “men” is the object after the Transitive verb “eating” or “eats.” “*Man-eating*” may be parsed as a compound verbal adjective, qualifying the noun “tiger.”

Passive.—“The *terror-stricken* deer”; that is, the deer stricken or struck with terror.

123. *A Participle can be used absolutely with a noun or pronoun in the Nominative case going before it. A noun or pronoun so used is called the Nominative Absolute.*

The word *absolute* means “free, standing alone, having no connection with any other word in the sentence.”

The noun or pronoun going before the participle is said to be *absolute*, because it is neither the subject nor the object to any Finite verb, but stands alone with its Participle.

Examples.

He having declared his wish, the company went away.
The town having been taken, the inhabitants fled.
The dawn appearing, all the people rose up.
I being sick, the doctor was sent for at once.
This being done, they sat down and rested.

§ 8. GERUNDS OR VERBAL NOUNS.

124. The **Ger'-und** of a Transitive verb has four forms, two for the Active voice, and two for the Passive.

	<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>
<i>Present</i> . . .	Loving	Being loved
<i>Perfect</i> . . .	Having loved	Having been loved

The Gerund of an Intransitive verb has only two forms, since such verbs have no Passive voice.

Present . . . Fading Perfect . . . Having faded

125. Now if you refer to the previous section, you will see that the forms of the Gerund are precisely the same as the forms of the Participle.

Is a Gerund, then, the same thing as a Participle? By no means.

A Gerund is a Verbal noun; a Participle is a Verbal adjective.

126. Since a Gerund is a kind of **Noun**, it may be (a) the subject to some verb (Transitive or Intransitive), or (b) the object to some verb (Transitive), or (c) the complement to some verb, or (d) the object to some preposition; as—

- (a) *Subject to a verb.*—*Sleeping* is necessary to life.
- (b) *Object to a verb.*—He enjoyed *sleeping* in the open air.
- (c) *Complement to a verb.*—The best kind of rest is *sleeping*.
- (d) *Object to a preposition.*—He was fond of *sleeping*.

In all of these sentences you will see that "sleeping" is not a Participle or Verbal adjective, since it does not in any case qualify a noun or pronoun. "A sleeping cat"—here "sleeping" is a Participle or Verbal adjective qualifying the noun *cat*.

In the following sentences, say whether the words noted below are Verbal nouns or Verbal adjectives:—

The rice will grow well in the *coming* rains. We heard of his *coming* back to-day. Did you hear of his *having won* a prize? The boy, *having won* a prize, was much praised. She was fond of *being admired*. *Being admired* by all, she was much pleased. The cow *having been killed* by a tiger yesterday, could not be found. The boy was ashamed of *having been beaten* in class by his sister. I am tired of *doing* this work. *Doing* this work every day, you will soon improve. *Spelling* is more difficult than *writing*. He was in the habit of *boasting* of his cleverness. A *boasting* man is much despised. He was pleased at *having found* his son. *Having found* his son, he returned home at once. Foxes do not enjoy *being hunted*, but men enjoy *hunting* them. The fox, *being hunted*, fled into its hole.

127. A Gerund (as you have learnt already) is not only a noun, but also a **Verb**.

Taking it as a verb, you will find that if the verb is Transitive, it governs an object in precisely the same way as any Finite tense of the same verb can do :—

I am certain of seeing *him* to-day. He repented of having struck *the horse*. I am fond of reading *this book*.

He was pleased at having won *a prize*. The horse is in the habit of pawing *the ground*.

In all these sentences the verb contained in the Gerund has an object after it. Thus "seeing" is (1) a noun after the preposition *of*, and (2) it is a verb governing the object *him*. Again "having struck" is (1) a noun after the preposition *of*, and (2) it is a verb governing the object *horse*. And so with the other examples.

128. An ordinary noun can be compounded with a Gerund, so as to make a compound noun ; as—

Book-reading (the act or habit of reading books) improves the mind.

Fox-hunting (the act of hunting a fox) is fine sport.

Parsing Model (Verbs).

(1) *This gentleman had a fine house* :—

Had—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood, active voice of the verb "to have," agreeing with its nominative case or subject "gentleman."

(2) *The horse was taken to the stable* :—

Was taken—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood, passive voice of the verb "to take," agreeing with its nominative case or subject "horse."

(3) *The man and his friend walked into the field* :—

Walked—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood of the verb "to walk," agreeing with its two subjects "man" and "friend."

(4) *I have long been absent from home* :—

Have been—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, present perfect tense, indicative mood of the verb "to be," agreeing with its subject "I."

(5) *I shall go home, but you will stop here* :—

Shall go—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to go,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Will stop—Verb intransitive, second person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to stop,” agreeing with its subject “you.”

(6) *Take a seat on this bench* :—

Take—Verb transitive, second person, singular number, imperative mood of the verb “to take,” agreeing with its subject “thou” or “you” understood.

(7) *Were I in his place, I would pay the rupee* :—

Were—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to be,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Would pay—Verb transitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to pay,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

(8) *You need not send those books to me* :—

Send—Verb transitive, infinitive mood.

(9) *Having found his friend, he was much pleased* :—

Having found—Verb transitive, perfect participle of the verb “to find,” qualifying the pronoun “he.”

(10) *He was much pleased at having found his friend* :—

Having found—Verb transitive, gerund of the verb “to find,” object to the preposition “at.”

CHAPTER VI.—ADVERBS.

§ 1. THE KINDS OF ADVERBS.

129. An **Adverb** (according to the definition usually given) qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or other Adverb; as—

An *almost* black snake crept *very* *silently* towards me.

Here *almost* qualifies the adjective “black”; *silently* qualifies the verb “crept”; and *very* qualifies the adverb “silently.”

130. But this definition is not sufficient. For an

Adverb can qualify *Prepositions* and *Conjunctions*, and not merely verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs:—

(a) **Prepositions** :—

The bird flew *exactly* over the sleeper's head.
He paid the money *quite* up to date.
He was sitting *almost* outside the door.
He arrived *long* before the time.
The bird flew *a little* above his head.

(b) **Conjunctions** :—

We stand now *exactly* as we were.
A man is truly happy, *only* whilst he is in sound health.
I dislike this place, *simply because* the air is too hot.
They locked the door, *shortly before* the thieves came.
The watch was found, *long after* the thieves had been caught.
I will do this, *only if* you promise to do that.

131. An adverb can qualify not merely individual words, but an entire sentence :—

Unfortunately the thief was not caught.
Evidently he is much distressed at the news.
Apparently he acted from some secret motive.

In the above sentences the adverb can be changed into the corresponding adjective. This shows that the adverb had reference to the entire sentence and not to any one word in particular.

It was unfortunate that the thief was not caught.
It is evident that he is much distressed at the news.
It was apparent that he acted from some secret motive.

132. *An adverb never qualifies a Noun or Pronoun.*
This is the work of Adjectives.

133. There are three different kinds of adverbs:—

- I. Simple.
- II. Interrogative.
- III. Relative.

134. The **Simple** adverbs can be distinguished from each other according to their meaning:—

(a) *Quality or Manner*.—He acted *thus*. He did his work *slowly*, but *surely*. He behaved *foolishly*.

- (b) *Quantity or Degree*.—He is *almost*, but not *quite*, the cleverest boy in the class. He is *very* clever.
- (c) *Number*.—He *seldom* failed, and *always* did his best.
- (d) *Time*.—He did this *before*, and you have done it *since*. He will *soon* be here.
- (e) *Place*.—We must rest *here*, and not *there*.
- (f) *Affirming or Denying*.—He will *probably* return to-day. We shall *certainly* succeed. He did *not* come.

135. The **Interrogative** adverbs are those used for asking questions:—

- (a) *Quality or Manner*.—How (in what manner) did he do this? How (in what state of health) is he to-day?
- (b) *Quantity or Degree*.—How far (to what extent) is this report true?
- (c) *Number*.—How often did the dog bark? How many persons came?
- (d) *Time*.—When did he come? How long will he remain here? How soon will he go?
- (e) *Place*.—Where did he go? How far (to what distance) did he go? Whence has he come. Whither (to what place) is he going?
- (f) *Cause*.—Why (for what reason or cause) did he say this? Wherefore does she weep?

136. The Interrogative "how" is sometimes used in an Exclamatory or Interjectional sense:—

How kind of you to do that!
How often have I told you to mind your work!

137. The Interrogative adverbs are sometimes used in a **Relative** sense. They must then be called "Relative adverbs"; and the antecedent noun to which they relate may be either omitted or expressed:—

- (a) *The antecedent omitted*.

This is *where* (=the place in which) we dwell.
Let me know *when* (=the time by which) you will come.

(b) *The antecedent expressed.*

This is the place *where* we dwell.
Let me know the time *when* you will come.

138. The word "*the*" is used as a Relative adverb, provided it is placed before an adjective or adverb in the Comparative Degree, and provided a similar combination of "*the*" with a Comparative follows immediately after :—

The more wealth men have, *the more* they desire.
The nearer the bone, *the sweeter* the meat.
The sooner he comes, *the better* for him.
The stronger the ox is, *the heavier* weight it will carry.
The more rain falls, *the better* it will be for the crops.

Such adverbs are always used in the sense of *quantity* or *degree*. The first "*the*" is a Relative adverb, and the second is a Simple one :—“To *what* extent men have more wealth, to *that* extent they still desire more.”

The Simple "*the*" is often used without having a Relative "*the*" going before it :—

He worked *the* harder, because he hoped to win.
He worked *to that extent* harder, because he, etc.

§ 2. DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN ADVERBS.

139. Adverbs have degrees of comparison like adjectives, and these are formed in the same kind of way.

(a) If the Adverb is a word of *one* syllable, the Comparative is formed by adding *er*, and the Superlative by adding *est* :—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Soon	sooner	soonest
Long	longer	longest
Loud	louder	loudest
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest

(b) Some Adverbs form the degrees of comparison in an irregular way:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Well	better	best
Ill or badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Forth	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest

(c) Adverbs ending in *ly* form the Comparative by adding *more*, and the Superlative by adding *most*:—

Wisely	more wisely	most wisely
Beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

§ 3. THE FORMS OF ADVERBS.

140. Some Adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjectives; as—

<i>Adverb.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>
He was <i>much</i> pleased.	There is <i>much</i> sickness here.
He stayed <i>long</i> .	He went on a <i>long</i> journey.
He spoke <i>loud</i> .	There is a sound of <i>loud</i> voices.
He came <i>early</i> .	He woke up at an <i>early</i> hour.
He hit him <i>hard</i> .	This is a <i>hard</i> piece of wood.
He came <i>quick</i> .	They rode along at a <i>quick</i> pace.
Stand <i>near</i> while I speak.	He is my <i>near</i> relation.
He was <i>a little</i> tired.	There is <i>a little</i> hope now.
He came <i>only</i> once.	This is my <i>only</i> son.
He has slept <i>enough</i> .	He has eaten <i>enough</i> bread.

141. Adverbs in “*ly*.”—Most Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *ly*.

<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>
Wise	wisely (<i>Adverb of Quality or Manner</i>)
Whole	wholly (<i>Adverb of Quantity</i>)
First	firstly (<i>Adverb of Number or Order</i>)
Former	formerly (<i>Adverb of Time</i>)
Distant	distantly (<i>Adverb of Place</i>)
Certain	certainly (<i>Adverb of Affirming</i>)

But this form of the Adverb occurs most frequently in Adverbs of *Quality* or *Manner*; and there is gener-

ally an Abstract noun which can be placed between the Adjective and the Adverb :—

Adjective.	Abstract Noun.	Adverb.
Wise	wisdom	wisely
Poor	poverty	poorly
High	height	highly
Short	shortness	shortly

142. A certain class of Adverbs has been formed from Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative words :—

Adjectives or Pronouns.	ADVERBS.				
	Rest.	Motion to.	Motion from.	Time.	Manner.
Dem. { The	there	thither	thence	then	thus
He	here	hither	hence
Rel. Who	where	whither	whence	when	how
Inter. Who ?	where ?	whither ?	whence ?	when ?	how ?

Many of the above adverbs can be compounded with prepositions :—

From "there" we get *therein*, *thereto*, *thereat*, *therefore*, *therefrom*, *therewith*, *thereout*, *thereon*, *thereby*, *thereof*.

From "here" we get *herein*, *hereto*, *heretofore*, *hereat*, *herewith*, *hereon* or *hereupon*, *hereof*, *hereby*, *hereafter*.

From "where" we get *wherein*, *whereto*, *wherefore*, *whereon*, *whereof*.

From "hither" we get *hitherto* (= up to this point of place or time).

From "thence" we get *thenceforth*, *thenceforward*.

From "hence" we get *henceforth*, *henceforward*.

143. **Adverbs ending in "s."**—These are formed from the Possessive cases of nouns :—

Needs (= of need, necessarily). *Once* (= of one, or of one time). *Twice* (= of two times). *Sometimes* (= of some time). *Always* (= of all way). *Sideways* (= of a side-way). *Length-ways* (= of a length-way). *Else* (= of other, from an old form, "elles," of another).

144. **Adverbial Phrases.**—There is a large class

of words in English which are made up of two or more words, and may be called Adverbial phrases:—

- (1) A preposition followed by a noun:—*At random* (aimlessly); *of course* (necessarily); *at length* (finally); *in fact* (actually); *to boot* (moreover); *of a truth* (truly).
- (2) A preposition amalgamated with a noun:—*Indeed* (actually); *betwixt* (punctually); *besides* (in addition); *between* (in the middle); *to-day* (on this day); *to-morrow* (on the next day); *asleep* (in a state of sleep); *abed* (in bed); *away* (on the way).

Note.—The “*be*” is an old form of the preposition “*by*.” The “*a*” is a contracted form of the preposition “*on*.”

- (3) A preposition followed by an adjective. Some noun is understood after the adjective:—*In general*, *in particular*, *in short*, *at large*, *in vain*, *on high*, *of old*, *after all*, *at first*, *at last*, *at least*, *at all*, *at most*, *at best*, *in future*, *at present*.
- (4) A preposition amalgamated with an adjective. Here, as before, some noun is understood after the adjective:—*Below*, *beyond*, *behind*, *abroad*, *awhile*, *awry*, *across*, *along*, *aloud*, etc.
- (5) A noun qualified by an adjective:—*Meantime*, *meanwhile*, *mid-way*, *yesterday*, etc.
- (6) Miscellaneous phrases:—*By all means*, *by no means*, *by the by* (something said in passing), *by the way* (the same meaning as *by the by*), *once on a time*, *inside out*, *upside down*, *to be sure* (certainly), *head foremost* (with the head in front), *head downwards*, *topsy-turvy*, *head over heels* (the head being thrown over the heels).

145. Adverbs sometimes go together *in pairs*, the one being connected with the other by the conjunction “*and*” :—

He is walking *up and down*, *to and fro*.
 He is walking *here and there*, *hither and thither*.
 The mice run *in and out*, *backwards and forwards*.
 He comes *here now and then* (occasionally).
 He works *off and on* (irregularly).
 You will see him *by and by* (in a short time).

§ 4. USES OF ADVERBS.

146. Adverbs may be used either attributively or predicatively.

147. An adverb is used **attributively**, when it

qualifies some other word in the ordinary way (as shown in §§ 129, 130).

He works *industriously*. (*Verb*.)

An *almost* black snake crawled up to me. (*Adjective*.)

He slept *quite* soundly. (*Adverb*.)

The bird flew *exactly* over my head. (*Preposition*.)

They went out *shortly* before the sun set. (*Conjunction*.)

148. An adverb is used **predicatively**, when it stands as complement to an Intransitive or a Factitive verb (see §§ 80, 81) :—

The boat has gone *afloat*.

The game is now *over*.

The results are *out*.

Our side is now *in*.

Our house is *far away*.

No one is *here*; they are all
there.

We found him *asleep*.

CHAPTER VII.—PREPOSITIONS.

149. A **Prep'-o-sit'-ion** is placed before a noun or pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else; as—

I place my hand *on* the table.

Here if you leave out the word *on*, there is no sense. You might place your hand *on* the table, or *above* the table, or *under* the table. Until some Preposition has been inserted, the relation between the hand and the table is not known.

150. *A Preposition is never added to any part of speech except a noun or pronoun.*

An adverb is never added to a noun or pronoun.

By this simple rule you can always tell whether a word is a Preposition or an Adverb; and therefore you ought never to confound the one with the other.

151. The same word, however, can be used in one place as an Adverb, and in another as a Preposition.

*Examples.**Adverb.*

He walked *about*.
 The man ran *past*.
 The *above*-named book.
 He swam *across*.
 I saw him once *before*.
 Go *along* quickly.
 You must go *behind*.
 He sat *below*.
 There is nothing *beyond*.
 The horse was going *by*.
 Sit *down* here.
 He sat *inside*.
 The men stood *around*.
 He is standing *near*.
 He died two years *since*.
 Stand *up* as straight as you can.
 He lived *on* for two years.
 He came a few days *after*.
 Bees fly *in* and out.
 There were four men *besides*,
 The house was clean *within*.
 The house was clean *without*.

Preposition.

He walked *about* the field.
 He came at half-*past* seven.
 The sky is *above* the earth.
 The house stands *across* that field.
 He stood *before* the door.
 Let us walk *along* the bank.
 A man stood *behind* the door.
 He stood *below* me in the class.
 They went *beyond* the mark.
By whom was this done?
 The boat floats *down* the stream.
 The book is *inside* the box.
 They walked *around* the fields.
 Your house is *near* mine.
 Since that year I have been ill.
 Walk *up* the hill.
 A book is *on* the slate.
 He came *after* a few days.
 Fish swim *in* water.
 and ten more *besides* these.
 I slept *within* the house.
 Men die *without* sleep.

152. Prepositions are added to nouns or pronouns to express various different relations, as below:—

1. Place, Situation, Circumstance.

In.—Stand *in* the water. He is *in* a bad temper.
Into.—Go *into* the water. Water can be changed *into* steam.
Through.—Go *through* the door. He passed *through* many dangers.
Past or beyond.—*Beyond* the boundary. This is *past* endurance.
On or upon.—Sit *on* the box. *On* this condition I will trust you.
At.—He is not *at* home. He was much *at* fault.
By.—Sit *by* me. I will abide *by* my promise.
With.—I will go *with* you. All *with* one exception failed.
Over or above.—Air is *above* the earth. He spends *above* his income.
Below or under.—Snakes live *under* ground. The matter is *under* inquiry.
Behind.—The dog is *behind* you. There is a smile *behind* his frown.
Before.—Stand *before* the door. Duty *before* pleasure.
To.—He has gone *to* England. This is much *to* your credit.
For.—He starts *for* home. He worked hard *for* a prize.
From.—He starts *from* home. We are now free *from* danger.
Of.—He shot wide *of* the mark. He was robbed *of* his purse.
About.—Walk *about* the streets. He went *about* his business.

Near.—Come *near* the spot. His success is *near* my heart.

Along.—The boats were tied *along* the shore.

Among or amid.—Let us walk *amid* the trees. They quarrelled *among* themselves. (This is used for *more than two* things.)

Between.—*Between* the two banks of the river. He still halts *between* two opinions. (This is used for *two* things only.)

Up, down.—The monkey ran *up* and *down* the tree.

Across.—He sailed *across* the sea. Sit *across* the saddle.

Around or round.—Describe a circle *round* a given centre.

Beside.—He sat *beside* me. He is *beside* himself with anger.

Besides.—He has two sons in India *besides* one in England.

Against.—It is not easy to swim *against* the stream.

Without.—He stands *without* (outside) the gate. Men cannot live *without* food.

Within.—He is *within* the house. This is not *within* my power.

2. Time.

In.—He finished the work *in* ten days. He arrived *in* time.

Into.—He slept late *into* the day.

Through.—He has been a lazy man *through* or *throughout* his whole life.

Past or beyond.—He is now *past* or *beyond* the age of forty.

On.—I will expect you *on* Monday next.

At.—Bats fly out *at* night; but retire *at* daybreak.

By.—The sun shines *by* day; the moon *by* night.

With.—*With* the return of the hot winds the grass fades.

Above or over.—He was absent *above* or *over* two weeks.

Under.—You will not finish that work *under* two months.

Behind, after.—He arrived *behind* time. He returned *after* many days.

Before.—He commenced work *before* seven o'clock A.M.

To.—*To*-day, *to*-night, *to*-morrow. The train is not up *to* time.

For.—He was made a prisoner *for* life.

From.—They commence work daily *from* ten o'clock.

About.—It is now *about* three o'clock P.M.

Between.—He arrived *between* four and five o'clock P.M.

During.—I will remain here *during* your pleasure.

Pending.—Nothing more can be done *pending* his arrival.

Till or until.—They worked all day *till* sunset.

Within.—This was finished *within* the time fixed.

153. The noun or pronoun which comes after the preposition is called its **Object**; and this noun or pronoun is always in the **Ob-jeç'-tive** case.

One or more adjectives, and any noun or pronoun in the Possessive case, can come between the preposition and its object; as—

The hen came up to *my friend's* door with *her ten black* chickens.

Here *my* (possessive pronoun) and *friend's* (possessive noun) are placed between *to* and *door*. *Her* (possessive pronoun), *ten* (adjective of number), and *black* (adjective of quality) are placed between *with* and *chickens*.

154. Sometimes two prepositions are used together, both having the same object:—

He stood *over against* the bank. The seed sprouted *from under* the ground. One man stood *out from* among the rest. He came *from within* the house. The mouse crept *in between* the planks. The mouse appeared *from between* the planks.

155. Sometimes a Preposition takes the form of a phrase, and not of a single word. But a prepositional phrase invariably ends in a Simple preposition.*

By means of; *because of*; *in front of*; *in opposition to*; *in spite of*; *on account of*; *with reference to*; *with regard to*; *for the sake of*; *on behalf of*; *instead of*; *in lieu of*; *in the place of*; *in prospect of*; *with a view to*; *in the event of*.

156. Sometimes the object to a Preposition is a sentence; and sometimes an adverb used as a noun.

He told every one of *what he had heard*. (*Sentence.*)
From *now*; till *then*; before *now*; from *here*, etc. (*Adverbs.*)

CHAPTER VIII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

157. A **Con-junc'-tion** is a word used for *joining*. It joins:—

- (1) One word to another word.
- (2) One sentence to another sentence.

One Word joined to another Word.

158. When two words are joined together by a Conjunction, they are usually of *the same* or of *a similar* part of speech.

Thus, a noun is joined to a noun or pronoun; a verb to a verb; an adjective to an adjective or participle; an

adverb to an adverb or to a phrase which does the work of an adverb; a preposition to a preposition.

The cat slowly *and* silently approaches. James *and* I went away at four o'clock. The horse is lame *as well as* thin. She sat down *and* wept. The bird flew into *and* through a cloud. He returned happy *and* smiling.

He is poor, *but* honest. They are sad, *but* or *but yet* hopeful. Take this book *or* that. Do not walk up, *but* down the hill.

Point out all the parts of speech which are joined together by the Conjunctions in the above sentences.

159. There are some Conjunctions which go in pairs; as *both . . . and*; *either . . . or*; *neither . . . nor*; *not only . . . but also*.

Examples.

He is *both* wise *and* good. Take *either* the one book *or* the other. He is *neither* wise *nor* good. The goat was *not only* killed, *but also* eaten.

One Sentence joined to another Sentence.

160. Among those Conjunctions which join one sentence to another sentence, the most common are given in the following examples:—

First Sentence.
 My father says,
 I trust his word,
 The boy will come,
 I wish to know,
 She walked slowly,
 He will do this,
 The boy returned,
 You may go out,
 He left his bed,
 We could not tell,
 No one could find out,
 The mice will play,
 Can you tell me,
 You must wait here,
 They could not tell,
 The girl is quick,
 She went to bed;
 He was so badly hurt,
 I will trust you,

<i>Conjunction.</i>	<i>Second Sentence.</i>
<i>that</i>	this book is mine.
<i>because</i>	he speaks the truth.
<i>if</i>	he is allowed to do so.
<i>*whether</i>	I am excused or not.
<i>lest</i>	she should fall down.
<i>unless</i>	he is stopped by you.
<i>although</i>	the day was still wet.
<i>as or since</i>	the rain has now ceased.
<i>*when</i>	the sun was seen to rise.
<i>*whence</i>	the noise of voices arose.
<i>*where</i>	the cow was lying hid.
<i>while</i>	the cat is away.
<i>*whither</i>	he intends to go.
<i>until</i>	your father comes back.
<i>*why</i>	they were so heavily fined.
<i>and</i>	she reads very well.
<i>for</i>	she was feeling quite tired.
<i>that</i>	he died soon after.
<i>provided</i>	you sign your name.

<i>First Sentence.</i>	<i>Conjunction.</i>	<i>Second Sentence.</i>
I wish to know,	* <i>how</i>	the sick man is to-day.
He will die some day,	<i>however</i>	rich he may be.
He closed his house,	<i>after</i>	his friends had gone.
He cleaned his house well,	<i>before</i>	his friends came.
The girl is clever,	<i>but</i>	the boy is a dunce.
He left the house,	<i>as soon as</i>	the rain stopped.
He could not pass,	<i>though</i>	he tried often.
Your horse is swifter,	<i>than</i>	mine (is).

N.B.—The conjunctions marked with an asterisk, namely, *whether*, *when*, *whence*, *where*, *whither*, *why*, and *how*, are usually called Relative adverbs, because they are formed from the Relative pronoun *who* or *what*. Sometimes they are also called Conjunctions, because they join sentences.

A Relative adverb is thus a double part of speech. So far as it *qualifies* the verb of its own sentence by stating the time, place, manner, etc., of the event, it is an Adverb. So far as it joins one sentence to another, it is a Conjunction.

161. The Conjunction *that* is often left out:—

My father says (that) this book is mine.

It makes no difference in the sense whether the *that* is left out or put in. It is better, however, to make a practice of putting it in.

CHAPTER IX.—SYNTAX.

I. Nouns.

<i>Kind of Noun.</i>	<i>Gender.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Case.</i>
Proper	Masculine	Singular	Nominative
Common	Feminine	Plural	Possessive
Collective	Common		Objective
Material	Neuter		
Abstract			

II. *Pronouns.*

<i>Kind of Pronoun.</i>	<i>Gender.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Person.</i>	<i>Case.</i>
Pers. { Simple Reflexive	Masculine	Singular	1st	Nominative
Demons. { Definite Indefinite	Feminine Common Neuter	Plural	2nd 3rd	Possessive Objective
Relative Interrogative	Agreeing in Gender, Number, and Person with its antecedent —			

III. *The Cases of Nouns or Pronouns.*

<i>Nom.</i> to Verb	<i>Obj.</i> to Verb	Direct	<i>Obj.</i> in Apposition
„ as Compl. to Verb	„ „ Indirect	„ to Preposition	
„ in Apposition	„ „ Retained	„ Adverbial	
„ of Address	„ „ Cognate	„ after Adjectives	
„ Absolute	„ „ Reflexive	„ Interjectional	
Possessive	„ as Compl. to Verb		

IV. *Adjectives.*

<i>The Kind of Adjective.</i>	<i>Degree.</i>	<i>Use.</i>
Proper.		
Of Quality.	Numer.	Def.
Of Quantity.		Indef.
Distributive.	Demons.	Def. Indef.
		Positive Comparative Superlative
		Attributive Predicative

V. *Adverbs.*

<i>Kind.</i>	<i>Degree.</i>	<i>Use.</i>	<i>Attributive Uses.</i>
Simple	Positive		To qualify Verb
Relative	Comparative		„ „ Adjective
Interrogative	Superlative	Attributive Predicative	„ „ Adverb
			„ „ Preposition
			„ „ Conjunction
			„ „ Sentence

VI. *Finite Verbs.*

<i>Kind of Verb.</i>	<i>Person.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Tense.</i>	<i>Form.</i>
Transitive	1st	Singular	Present	Indefinite
Intransitive	2nd	Plural		Continuous
Auxiliary	3rd		Past	Perfect
Defective			Future	Perf. Contin.

<i>Mood.</i>	<i>Voice.</i>	
Indicative	Active	Agreeing with its subject or subjects, expressed or understood.
Imperative	Passive	Governing its object or objects, ex- pressed or understood.
Subjunctive		

VII. *Infinitive.*

<i>Form.</i>	<i>(a) Use as Noun Inf.</i>	<i>(b) Use as Gerundial Inf.</i>
Indefinite	Subject to Verb	To qualify a Verb
Continuous	Object to Verb	
Perfect	Complement to Verb	
Perf. Contin.	Object to Preposition	
	Exclamatory	

VIII. *Participle or Verbal Adjective.*

<i>Form.</i>	<i>Voice.</i>	<i>Kind of Verb.</i>	<i>Use.</i>
Present	Active	Transitive	Attributive
Past	Passive	Intransitive	Complement
Perfect			Predic. { Absolute

IX. *Gerund.*

<i>Form.</i>	<i>Voice.</i>	<i>Kind of Verb.</i>
Present	Active	Transitive
Perfect	Passive	Intransitive

162. **Nominative case.**—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) As Subject to a verb (see § 28):—

I did this. *Rain* is falling. *You* are tired.

(b) As *Subjective Complement* to a verb (see § 80):—

I am *the man*. This is *rain*, not *hail*.

(c) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Nominative case. (One Noun is in Apposition with another, when it denotes the same person or thing):—

I, *the man* that you were looking for, am here.

John, *the carpenter*, has succeeded well in business.

(d) For purposes of Address:—

O thou, that hearest my words, believe me.

How art thou fallen, *O Caesar*!

(e) In the Absolute construction (see § 123):—

We must give up the point, *success* being *hopeless*.

163. **Possessive case.**—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case qualifies Nouns and Gerunds as an adjective would do:—

My son. The *barber's* shop. The *tiger's* claw.—*Noun*.

I was displeased at *his* going away without leave. } *Gerund*.

This was a plan of *your* contriving.

(b) When two nouns are in apposition with one another in the Possessive case, the case-ending *s* is not added to the noun that stands *first*:—

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.

(c) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case can be the Complement to a verb:—

That book is *mine*, not *yours*.

This shop seems to be a *a barber's*.

164. **Objective case.**—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(1) As Object to a verb:—

(a) The master teaches *Euclid*. (*Direct.*) § 78.

(b) He teaches *his sons* Euclid. (*Indirect.*) § 78.

- (c) His sons were taught *Euclid*. (*Retained.*)
- (d) The fever will run its *course*. (*Cognate.*)
- (e) He sat *himself* down. (*Reflexive.*)

Note 1.—A verb, which takes *two* objects in the Active, can retain one in the Passive. This is called a **Retained** object, as "*Euclid*" in (c).

Note 2.—An object, placed after an Intransitive verb and more or less implied in the verb itself, is called a **Cognate** object, as "*course*" in (d).

Note 3.—An object placed after an Intransitive verb, and consisting of the same Personal pronoun as the subject to the verb, is called a **Reflexive** object, as "*himself*" in (e).

(2) As Objective Complement to a verb (§ 81):—

The citizens made him their *king*.

(3) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Objective case:—

The people of England beheaded Charles I., their *king*.

(4) As Object to a preposition (§ 29):—

He fought against *me*. A house built on *sand*.

(5) Adverbial Objective:—

He lived ten *years* (Time). He walked ten *miles* (Space). This cost ten *rupees* (Price).

That box weighs ten *seers* (Weight). The air is a *trifle* hotter to-day (Degree). Bind him *hand* and *foot* (Attendant circumstance).

(6) Objective after the adjectives "like" or "unlike," "near," "next":—

No man could bend the bow *like him*.

He stood *next me* in the class.

The house *nearest the grove* is the one that I prefer.

(7) Objective after Interjections or in exclamatory phrases:—

Unhappy *me*! Oh unhappy *man*!

Foolish *fellow*! to have wasted his time as he has done!

165. **The two uses of Adjectives.**—See No. IV. of Parsing Chart.

(a) **Attributive use:**—

An *industrious* student will generally succeed.

(b) **Predicative use:**—

He was *industrious*, and therefore he succeeded.

166. **Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective**

(§ 44).—A noun or gerund can be used attributively for an adjective, but not predicatively:—

A village watchman. *Drinking* water.

A sea captain. *Marble* halls. *A bathing*-place.

167. **Adjective substituted for Adverb.**—An adverb qualifying a verb can be changed into an adjective qualifying the *subject* to the verb. (The adjective is then an Adverbial adjunct; § 187, b):—

And furious every charger neighed.—*Campbell*.

Dark lowers the tempest overhead.—*Longfellow*.

And fearless there the lowly sleep.—*Mrs. Hemans*.

They neither toil nor spin, but *careless* grow.—*Thompson*.

Slow rises worth, by poverty depressed.—*Johnson*.

And slow and sure comes up the golden year.—*Tennyson*.

Note 1.—When the adverb qualifies *any part of speech except a verb* we cannot substitute an adjective for it. Thus we cannot say “He is *immense* clever” for “He is *immensely* clever.”

Note 2.—In poetry an adjective and adverb are sometimes coupled together by “*and*,” when the adjective qualifies the subject to the verb, and the adverb qualifies the verb itself:—

When faint and wearily he drags
Along his noontide way.—*Southey*.

Trip it deft and merrily.—*Scott*.

But Sir Richard bore in hand

All the sick men from the land

Very carefully and slow.—*Tennyson*.

168. **Pronoun and Antecedent.**—See Nos. II. and III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A Pronoun must be in the same case, number, and gender as the Antecedent or noun that it stands for; but in case it depends upon its own sentence.

After Caesar was declared *emperor* (Nominative), they slew *him* (Objective).

You must return the *book* (Objective), *which* (Nominative) was lent to you.

(b) A Relative pronoun, if it has two Antecedents, and these are not of the same person, agrees in person with the Antecedent *nearest to it*:—

You are the man who *is* chosen.

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences :—

I am the man who seek to help thee in distress. Thou art the man who fleest away in the time of danger. Art thou the chief, who brokest the power of the enemy?

169. The two uses of Adverbs.—See No. V. of Parsing Chart.

(a) **Attributive use** (§ 147).—An adverb, when it is used attributively, qualifies some other word or some sentence in the ordinary way :—

- (1) *Adjective*.—He is *remarkably clever*.
- (2) *Verb*.—Act *decisively*, if you act at all.
- (3) *Other Adverb*.—He explained his views *very clearly*.
- (4) *Preposition*.—The sun stood *exactly over* our heads.
- (5) *Conjunction*.—You may go, *only if* you promise to return.
- (6) *Sentence*.—*Fortunately*, all the thieves were caught.

(b) **Predicative use** (§ 148).—Here the adverb is Complement (Subjective or Objective) to the verb going before :—

- (1) *Subjective*.—The results will soon be *out* (=published).
- (2) *Objective*.—We found him *out* (=not at home) at that time.

170. Verb and Subject.—See No. VI. of Parsing Chart as to Number and Person.

A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject (§ 86).

Make the verbs agree properly with their subjects in the following examples :—

When you was here last, you was very fond of reading. The pleasures of life vanishes, when we becomes old and infirm. Thou would have seen the horse, if it had come towards us. School is broken up and the boys is playing at cricket. The Taj Mahal at Agra have stood a great many years. You is not the man that I want. I am still as fond of books as when you was here before. The movement of most quadrupeds are very swift. You wilt be rewarded with a prize for your industry. The following plans has been settled. The origin of Hindu manners and customs are unknown. There's no men in the room at this time. To know the animals, minerals, and fruits of a country are necessary to a knowledge of its history. Walking two or three hours daily in the open air give health and strength to the body. That seven hundred men was killed in that battle were sad news to all of us.

171. The Third Person of Verbs.—A verb is

invariably in the Third person, except when the Subject is a Personal Pronoun in the First or Second person.

- (1) *Noun*.—A snake is crawling through the grass.
- (2) *Pronoun*.—He returns to us to-morrow.
- (3) *Infinitive*.—To err is human.
- (4) *Gerund*.—Sleeping gives rest to the body.
- (5) *Phrase*.—How to do this was unknown to every one.
- (6) *Clause*.—That we must all die is certain.

172. Subjects not of the same Person:—

(a) When two or more Subjects, not of the same Person, are joined by "and," the verb is in the First person rather than the Second, and in the Second rather than the Third; and the *First person should be mentioned last* :—

James and I are (=we are) great friends.

(b) But when two or more such Subjects are joined by "or" or "nor," the verb agrees in person with the Subject nearest to it:—

Either James or I am at the top of the class.

Either you or James has done it.

Neither James nor you were present.

It would be better, however, to repeat the verb for each Subject. The sentences would then be rewritten as follows:—

Either James is at the top of the class or I am.

Either you have done it, or James has.

Neither James was present, nor were you.

173. Two Singular Nouns with Plural Verb:—

Two or more Singular nouns, when they are joined by "and," require a verb in the Plural.

A man and his wife have come here asking for work.

Your horse and mine (=my horse) are both at the door.

To this rule there are two exceptions:—

(a) If the two nouns joined by "and" refer to the same thing or person, the verb is Singular, and not Plural; as—

The great scholar and poet is dead.

Here "scholar" and "poet" refer to the same man, and the sentence might have been written:—

The man, who was a great scholar and a great poet, is dead.

Note.—When the article is mentioned only once, as in the sentence “*the* great scholar and poet,” it stands for both the nouns. This shows that only one person (and not two) is intended, and that hence the verb must be singular.

But if the article is mentioned twice, as in the sentence “*the* scholar and *the* poet,” then two distinct persons are intended, and the verb following must be in the plural number; as—

The scholar and the poet *are* dead.

(b) If the two nouns joined by “*and*” are regarded as a single object or notion, the verb is Singular; as—

Truth and honesty *is* the best policy. Curry and rice *was* his favourite food.

Here “truth and honesty” = the practice of truth and honesty, and hence the verb following is singular. Similarly, “curry and rice” = the food consisting of curry and rice, or the mixture of curry and rice.

174. One Singular Noun with Plural Verb.—A noun of *Multitude* (as distinct from a *Collective* noun) is followed by a Plural verb:—

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The jury (i.e. the individual jurors, or men of the jury) } \textit{were} \\ \text{divided in } \textit{their} \text{ opinions, and could not agree as to the} \\ \text{verdict.} \\ \\ \text{The jury (as one body) selected } \textit{its} \text{ speaker.} \\ \text{The multitude (individual men and women) } \textit{rise} \text{ from } \textit{their} \text{ seats.} \\ \text{This multitude (as one body) } \textit{is} \text{ too large to go into one room.} \end{array} \right.$

Note.—When the *individuals* of a group are intended, the noun is called a noun of *Multitude*. When the group *as a single whole* is intended, the noun is *Collective*.

175. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Simple or Noun-Infinitive may be (a) the Subject to a verb, (b) the Object to a verb, (c) the Complement to a verb, (d) the Object to a preposition (although this is very uncommon), (e) a form of exclamation (see § 111 and § 113, b):—

- (a) *Subj. to Verb.*—*To sleep* is necessary to health.
- (b) *Obj. to Verb.*—We desire *to improve*.
- (c) *Comp. to Verb.*—He appears *to be clever*.
- (d) *Obj. to Prepos.*—Your cow is about (=near) *to die* (=death).
- (e) *Form of Exclam.*—*To think* that he should have deceived me!

176. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive may be used—
 (a) to qualify a verb, in which case it does the work of an adverb ; (b) to qualify a noun, in which case it does the work of an adjective ; (c) to qualify an adjective, in which case it does the work of an adverb ; (d) to introduce a parenthesis, in which case it is absolute (see §§ 112 and 113, a) :—

- (a) *Verb*.—They went out *to see* the sport.
- (b) *Noun* { A house *to let*. (*Attributive*.)
This house is *to let*. (*Predicative*.)
- (c) *Adjective*.—Be quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.
- (d) *Parenthesis*.—He is,—*to speak* plainly,—a thief.

177. **The two uses of Participles.**—See No. VIII.
 of the Parsing Chart.

(a) *Attributive use* :—

A *willing* horse. A *fallen* tree. A *withered* flower.

(b) *Predicative use*.—This may occur—(1) when the Participle is complement to some verb (see § 80) ; or (2) when the Participle is used absolutely with some noun going before (see § 123) :—

- (1) { We found him *sleeping*. (*Objective Complement*.)
He became *alarmed*. (*Subjective Complement*.)
- (2) Our pace was slow, the horse *being tired*. (*Absolute*.)

Note 1.—That the Participle is predicative in the absolute construction is clear from the fact that the absolute phrase can be expanded into a sentence, in which a Finite verb or predicate is substituted for the Participle :—

The horse *being tired*=*because* the horse *was tired*, our pace was slow.

Note 2.—When no noun or pronoun is expressed, the Participle is called an Impersonal Absolute :—

Supposing this to be true, you are certainly guilty.
Granting that he is guilty, he must be punished.

Note 3.—A class of prepositions (which may be called Participial) has arisen from this use of Impersonal absolutes ; such as *considering*, *concerning*, *touching*, *owing to*, etc.

Considering his age, he has done well.

Owing to his good name, he was always trusted.

We will hear you again *concerning*, *regarding*, or *touching* this matter.

Parsed Sentence.

Brahmadatta, king of Benares, took a journey through the length and breadth of his kingdom to see if his subjects were happy and prosperous.

Brahmadatta—Proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “took.”

King—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, in apposition to “Brahmadatta.”

Of—Preposition having “Benares” as its object.

Benares—Proper noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “of.”

Took—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, active voice, agreeing with its subject “Brahmadatta,” and having “journey” for its object.

Journey—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “took.”

Through—Preposition having “length” and “breadth” for its objects.

Length—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

And—Conjunction, joining the two nouns “length” and “breadth.”

Breadth—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

Of—Preposition having “kingdom” for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, third person, agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “Brahmadatta.”

Kingdom—Common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case after the preposition “of.”

To see—Verb transitive, infinitive mood, present indefinite form, gerundial in use, qualifying the verb “took”; transitive verb having for its object the sentence “if . . . prosperous.”

If—Conjunction.

His—(To be parsed as above).

Subjects—Common noun, common gender, plural number, nominative case, subject to the verb “were.”

Were—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, agreeing with its subject “subjects.”

Happy—Adjective of quality, positive degree, predicative in use, subjective complement to the verb “were.”

And—Conjunction, joining the two adjectives “happy” and “prosperous.”

Prosperous—(To be parsed in the same way as “happy”).

CHAPTER X.—ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

178. A sentence which has only *one* Finite verb is called a Simple sentence ; as—

Subject.	Finite Verb.
Rain	falls.

The word “Simple” means *single*. The sentence is called *single* (or simple), because it has only *one* Finite verb in it.

179. A sentence that has *more than one* Finite verb is either Compound or Complex.

Thus :—“If I see him to-day, I will invite him to my house.” This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *two* Finite verbs, viz. “see” and “will invite.”

Again :—“The rain fell before they reached home, and every one got wet.” This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *three* Finite verbs, viz. “fell,” “reached,” and “got.”

180. There are four distinct parts or elements of which a Simple sentence can be composed ; and the analysis of a sentence consists in *decomposing* it (that is, in analysing or breaking it up) into these several parts :—

1. The Subject.
2. Adjuncts to the Subject, *if any*.
3. The Predicate.
4. Adjuncts to the Predicate, *if any*.

Of these four elements the first and third (viz. the Subject and the Predicate) are essential to the sentence,—that is, the sentence could not exist without them. But the second and fourth (viz. the Adjuncts to the Subject or Predicate) are not essential. They are mere additions, which may or may not be present, and could be removed without destroying the sentence.

181. I. The Subject must be either a *Noun* or something that has the force of a Noun.

II. The additions or Adjuncts to the Subject (if there are any) must be either *Adjectives* or words that have the force of an Adjective. They have hence been called Attributive Adjuncts. (They are sometimes also called the Enlargement of the Subject.)

III. The Predicate must either be a *Finite verb* or it must contain one.

IV. The additions or Adjuncts to the Predicate (if there are any) must be either *Adverbs* or words which have the force of an Adverb. They have hence been called Adverbial Adjuncts. (Sometimes also they have been called the Extension of the Predicate.)

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. Predicate.	IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Predicate).
A tiger	fierce	was shot	to-day.
The horse	tired	will sleep	soundly.

The Subject.

182. The Subject can be expressed in several different forms, all of which (as you have already learnt) are either Nouns or words that have the force of a Noun:—

	Subject.	Predicate.
(a) { <i>A Noun</i>	Rain	is falling.
<i>A Noun understood</i>	The virtuous (men)	will prosper.
(b) <i>A Pronoun</i>	We	must go.
(c) <i>A Noun-Infinitive</i>	To work	is healthy.
(d) <i>A Gerund</i>	Working	is healthy.
(e) <i>A Phrase</i>	How to do this	is doubtful.

Note.—When a Noun-Infinitive is used as Subject, it is sometimes placed after the Predicate, and is in apposition to the pronoun "it."

It is sad to see this—It—viz. to see this—is sad.

Attributive Adjuncts (to the Subject).

183. It has been explained already that all such additions *qualify the Subject*, and hence they are either adjectives or words having the force of an adjective.

Note.—The Definite and Indefinite articles, although properly speaking they belong to the class of Demonstrative adjectives, are not counted as Adjuncts in the analysis of sentences.

184. The principal kinds of Attributive Adjuncts are :—

(a) An Adjective ; as—

A *heavy* shower fell to-day.

Here *heavy* is something added to the meaning of the Subject "shower," because it shows what kind of shower is meant.

(b) A Participle or Verbal adjective (see § 118) :—

A fertilising shower fell to-day.

Here *fertilising* is something added to the meaning of the Subject, because it shows what kind of work the shower is expected to do.

(c) A Gerundial Infinitive (see § 112, b) :—

Water *to drink* is scarce in this place.

Here *to drink* shows the purpose for which the water will be used, and like an adjective it qualifies the noun "water."

(d) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case (see § 166, a) :—

My son's teacher called here to-day.

(e) A Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective (§ 169) :—

The village watchman fell asleep in the night.

Drinking water is scarce in this place.

(f) A Noun in Apposition (see § 162, c) :—

Alexander, *the King* of Macedon, conquered Persia.

Here the noun *king* qualifies or adds something to the meaning of the noun "Alexander," by showing what sort of man Alexander was.

(g) A Preposition with its Object ; as—

A man *of virtue* (=a virtuous man) will not tell a lie.

(h) An Adverb with some Participle understood ; as—

The *then* king = the then (reigning) king.

The Predicate.

185. The Predicate must be either a Finite verb or it must contain one. All possible forms of a Predicate are shown in the following scheme:—

Subject.	PREDICATE.		
	Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.
1. { A hog The snake	grunts. was killed.
2. { My son The thief	became was ordered	...	a good scholar. to be severely punished.
3. { The gardener The teacher	killed can teach	that poisonous snake. (a) my sons (b) Euclid.	...
4. They	found	the weary man	sound asleep.

In (1) we have first an Intransitive verb of Complete Predication (see § 79), and then a Transitive verb in the Passive voice. Neither of these requires either an Object or a Complement. So the verb alone makes up the Predicate.

In (2) we have first an Intransitive verb of Incomplete Predication (see § 80), and then a Factitive verb in the Passive voice (see § 81). Each of these requires a Complement to complete what the verb left unsaid.

In (3) we have first a Transitive verb with a single Object (see § 73), and then a Transitive verb with a double Object (see § 78). Each of these requires the Object (single or double) to be expressed before the predication can be complete.

In (4) we have a Factitive verb in the Active voice, which therefore requires both an Object and a Complement to make the predication complete (see § 81).

Note 1.—If the Object or Complement has any qualifying words attached to it, these can be mentioned with it in the same column.

Thus in the complement "a good scholar," there is no need to make a separate column for the qualifying adjective "good."

Again, in the complement "to be severely punished," there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adverb "severely."

Again, in stating the object "that poisonous snake," there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adjectives "that" and "poisonous."

Note 2.—An Auxiliary verb may be put in the same column with the Principal verb. Thus in stating "can teach," we need not give one column for "can" and another for "teach."

Adverbial Adjuncts (to the Predicate).

186. Anything which qualifies the action of the verb (by saying something about the time, manner, place, cause, means, instrument, purpose, or any other circumstance) is called an Adjunct or addition to the Predicate.

All such additions, since they qualify the verb, must be either *adverbs* or words having the force of an adverb.

187. The principal kinds of adjuncts are:—

- (a) *An Adverb.*—He sleeps soundly.
- (b) *An Adjective or Participle.*—He went away sad and depressed.
- (c) *A Gerundial Infinitive.*—He came to see the horse.
- (d) *A Preposition with its Object.*—He fell into the well.
- (e) *A Noun* { *of Time.*—He walked all day.
of Space.—He walked ten miles.
- (f) *An Absolute Phrase.*—The sun having set, we went away.

Examples of Analysis.

1. A darwesh, travelling through Tartary, having arrived at the town of Balkh, entered the king's palace by mistake, thinking it to be a public inn or serai.

2. My father taught all his sons Euclid with much success.

3. Alexander, the King of Macedon, was surnamed the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire.

4. The man employed for this purpose caught the thief stealing a watch.

5. The merchant, having much property to sell, caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that particular part of the country.

6. A gentleman of wealth and position, living in London, some sixty years ago, had a country seat in Kent, some forty miles distant from the metropolis.

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.	IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Predicate).
		Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.
1. A Darwesh	(a) travelling through Tartary (b) having arrived at the town of Balkh	entered the king's palace	... (a) by mistake (b) thinking it to be a public inn or serai.
2. Father	my	taught (a) all his sons (b) Euclid	... with much success.
3. Alexander	the King of Macedon	was sur- named	the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire.
4. The man	employed for the purpose	caught	... stealing a watch.
5. The merchant	having much property to sell	caused	... to be conveyed on camels
6. A gentleman	(a) of wealth and position (b) living in London (c) some sixty years ago	had a country seat	... (a) in Kent (b) some forty miles distant from the metropolis.

Analyse the following Simple sentences according to the model :—

1. A certain fowler, having fixed his net, withdrew to a little distance for the sake of allowing birds to come.
2. The king of the pigeons was by chance passing through the sky at this time with a troop of followers.
3. He and they caught sight of the rice-grains scattered by the fowler near the net.
4. The king of the pigeons then asked his rice-loving followers this question—
5. Why are rice-grains lying here in this lonely place?
6. We will see into this thing.
7. We must be cautious in our movements.
8. One conceited pigeon among the rest gave them bad advice.
9. He told them to fly down to the rice-grains for the sake of satisfying their hunger.
10. Having flown down and listened to this bad advice, they began to peck up and swallow the grains against the advice of their king.
11. On their beginning to peck they were all caught in the net.
12. Then they blamed their rash and imprudent friend for having given them such bad advice.
13. They ought rather to have blamed themselves for having listened to him.
14. The king now told them what to do.
15. At one moment and with one united movement springing suddenly up fly off with the net.
16. Small things become strong by being united among themselves.
17. Even mad elephants can be held fast by a rope made of thin blades of grass.
18. The pigeons acted on this advice.
19. Making a sudden spring together, they flew up into the air, carrying the net with them.
20. At first the fowler hoped to see them come down again to the earth.
21. But they passed out of sight with the net about them.
22. In this way the fowler lost both his net and the pigeons.
23. The pigeons then said to their king :—“O king, what is the next thing to be done?”
24. The king directed them to a certain place.
25. There his friend, the king of the mice, received them kindly.
26. The king of the mice set them all free by nibbling through the net.
27. Thus the whole troop of pigeons escaped by means of union.
28. All men should profit by this lesson.
29. A chariot will not go on a single wheel.
30. A creeper, having nothing to support it, must fall to the earth.

APPENDIX A.

THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

1. To "conjugate" a verb is to show its chief parts.

2. The chief parts of a verb in English are the Present tense, the Past tense, and the Past Participle; all the other parts, Active and Passive, can be easily formed from these three.

3. There are two main kinds of Conjugation:—

(1) The *Strong* or older kind (now much less numerous than it once was), which forms the Past tense by changing *the inside vowel* of the Present; as, *rise, rose*.

(2) The *Weak* or new kind (now much more numerous than the Strong), which forms the Past tense by adding *ed* or *d* or *t* to the Present without any change of the inside vowel; as, *love, loved*.

Besides these there is a third kind which may be called *Mixed*, being partly Weak and partly Strong.

§ 1. *The Strong or Older Conjugation.*

4. The Strong verbs are conjugated by internal changes, the nature of which is too various to be reduced to a single rule.

The most general process consists in (1) changing the inside vowel for the Past tense, and (2) adding *en*, *n*, or *ne* for the Past Participle.

5. Formerly *all* verbs of the Strong conjugation formed the Past Participle by adding *en*, *n*, *ne*; but many of them have now laid aside this suffix.

Hence the Strong verbs, as they now exist, fall into two main groups:—

(1) Those which have retained } the *en*, *n*, or *ne* in the
(2) Those which have lost } Past Participle.

Group I.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Arise	arose	arisen
Bear (bring forth)	bore	born
Bear (carry)	bore	borne
Beget	begot, begat	begotten, begot
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bind	bound	*bounden, bound
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave (split)	clove, cleft	*cloven, cleft
Crow	crew, crowded	crown, crowded
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	*drunken, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	*gotten, got
Give	gave	given
Go, wend	went	gone
Grow	grew	grown
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Know	knew	known
Lie	lay	lain
Ride	rode	ridden
Rise	rose	risen
See	saw	seen
Shake	shook	shaken
Shrink	shrank	*shrunken, shrunk
Sink	sank	*sunk, sunk
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Speak	spoke	spoken
Steal	stole	stolen
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	*stricken, struck
Strive	strove	striven
Swear	swore	sworn
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn
Thrive	throve, thriven	thriven, thrived

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Weave	wove	woven
Write	wrote	written
Wear	wore	worn

Note.—The seven participles marked * are now chiefly used as Verbal adjectives, and not as parts of a tense:—

<i>Verbal Adjective.</i>	<i>Part of the Tense.</i>
Our <i>bounden</i> duty.	He was <i>bound</i> by his promise.
A <i>drunken</i> man.	He had <i>drunk</i> much wine.
A <i>sunken</i> ship.	The ship had <i>sunk</i> under the water.
A <i>stricken</i> deer.	The deer was <i>struck</i> with an arrow.
The <i>shrunken</i> stream.	The stream has <i>shrunk</i> in its bed.
Ill- <i>gotten</i> wealth.	He has <i>got</i> his wealth by ill means.
A <i>cloven</i> hoof.	The tree was <i>cleft</i> by lightning.

Group II.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Awake	awoke	awoke
Become	became	become
Begin	began	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld, beholden ¹
Cling	clung	clung
Come	came	come
Dig	dug	dug
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Fling	flung	flung
Grind	ground	ground
Hang (<i>Intransitive</i>) ²	hung	hung
Hold	held	held
Ring	rang	rung
Run	ran	run
Shine	shone	shone
Sing	sang	sung
Sit	sat	sat
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Spin	spun	spun
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung

¹ "Beholden" means "indebted."

² The *Transitive* verb is conjugated both in the Weak and in the Strong form.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Stink	stank	stunk
String	strung	strung
Swim	swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung

§ 2. *The Mixed Conjugation.*

6. Verbs of *Mixed* conjugation fall into two main groups:—

(1) Those which (like Weak verbs) form the Past tense and the Past Participle by adding *d* or *t* to the Present, but (like Strong verbs) change the inside vowel; as, *seek*, *sought*, *sought*.

(2) Those which (like Weak verbs) form the Past tense in *d* or *t* without changing the inside vowel, but (like Strong verbs) form the Past Participle by adding *en* or *n*; as, *show*, *showed*, *shown*.

Group I.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Beseech	besought	besought
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught	caught
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Work	wrought, worked	*wrought, worked
Owe	ought, owed	owed
Dare	durst, dared	dared
Can	could	(Wanting)
Shall	should	(Wanting)
Will	would	(Wanting)
May	might	(Wanting)

Group II.

Beat	beat	beaten
Do	did (<i>irregular</i>)	done
Grave	graved	*graven, graved
Hew	hewed	hewn
Lade	laded	laden
Melt	melted	*molten, melted
Mow	mowed	mown

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Rive	rived	riven
Seethe	seethed	*sodden, seethed
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shear	sheared	*shorn, sheared
Sow	sowed	sown
Swell	swelled	swollen
Show	showed	shown
Sew	sewed	sewn
Rot	rotted	*rotten, rotted
Strew	strewed	strown or strown
Prove	proved	†proven, proved
Saw	sawed	sawn
Shape	shaped	†shapen or shaped
Writhe	writhed	†writhen, writhed

Note 1.—The participles marked * are now chiefly used as Verbal adjectives, and not as parts of a tense:—

Verbal Adjective.

Wrought iron.

A graven image.

A molten image.

A rotten plank.

The sodden flesh.

A shorn lamb.

Part of a Tense.

The horse is *worked* too hard.

The image was *engraved* with letters.

The image was *melted* with heat.

The plank was *rotted* with water.

The flesh was *seethed* in hot water.

The lamb was *sheared* yesterday.

Note 2.—The participles marked † are now seldom seen except in poetry.

§ 3. *The Weak or New Conjugation.*

7. All verbs, except those shown in the preceding lists, belong to the Weak or New Conjugation, in which the process of forming the Past tense and Past Participle consists in adding *ed* or *t* to the Present.

8. The mode of adding the suffix “*ed*” is not uniform; and the two rules given below should be observed:—

(1) If the verb ends in *e*, then *d* only is added, and not *ed*; as—

Lived, lived (not *liveed*).

Clothe, clothed (not *clotheed*).

To this rule there is no exception.

(2) The final consonant is doubled before *ed*, provided (a) that the final consonant is *single*, (b) that it is *accented*, and (c) that it is preceded by a *single vowel*; as—

Fan, fanned (not *fanned*); *drop, dropped* (not *droped*).

Com-pel', com-pelled; *con-trol', con-trolled*.

But in a verb like *length'-en*, where the accent is not on the last syllable, the Past tense is *lengthened*; in a verb like *boil*, where the vowel is not single, the Past tense is *boiled*; and in a verb like *fold*, where the last consonant is not single, the Past tense is *folded*.

To this rule there are very few exceptions. One exception occurs in the final *l*. The final *l* is doubled, even when it is not accented; as, *trav'-el*, *trav'-elled* (not *trav'-eled*). But the final *l* is not doubled, if it has two vowels going before it; as, *trav'-ail*, *trav'-ailed* (not *trav'-ailled*).

9. Some verbs of the Weak Conjugation form the Past tense in "*t*," and if the vowel of the Present is a long one, they shorten it:—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Creep	crept	crept
Sleep	slept	slept
Sweep	swept	swept
Keep	kept	kept
Weep	wept	wept
Burn	burnt	burnt
Deal (dēl)	dēalt	dēalt
Dream (drēm)	drēamt or dreamed	drēamt or dreamed
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Feel	felt	felt
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Smell	smelt	smelt
Spell	spelt	spelt
Lean (lēn)	lēant or leaned	lēant or leaned
Mean (mēn)	mēant	mēant
Spill	spilt	spilt
Spoil	spoilt or spoiled	spoilt or spoiled

Exceptional Verbs.—Make, made, made. Have, had, had. Hear, heard, heard. Leave, left, left. Cleave, cleft, cleft. Lose, lost, lost. Die, died, dead. Shoe, shod, shod. Flee, fled, fled. Say, said, said. Lay, laid, laid. Pay, paid, paid.

10. Verbs which end in *d* or *t* in the Present tense have discarded the *ed* in the Past.

(a) Some verbs in this group have the three forms (Present tense, Past tense, and Past Participle) all exactly alike:—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Let	let	let
Put	put	put

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Rid	rid	rid
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Slit	slit	slit
Spit	spit or spat	spit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Bet	bet or betted	bet or betted

(b) Other verbs in this group end in *d* in the Present tense, but form the Past tense and Past Participle by changing *d* into *t*. (There are at least nine such verbs in English.)

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Bend	bent	bent
Build	built	built
Gild	gilt or gilded	gilt or gilded
Gird	girt	girt
Lend	lent	lent
Rend	rent	rent
Send	sent	sent
Spend	spent	spent
Wend	went	(Wanting)

(c) Other verbs of this group have the three forms all alike, except that they shorten the vowel in the Past tense and Past Participle:—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Feed	fed	fed
Speed	sped	sped
Meet	met	met
Lead	led	led
Read (rēd)	read (rēad)	read (rēad)
Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
Shoot	shot	shot

APPENDIX B.

AUXILIARY AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Those verbs are said to be *Auxiliary* which help to form the tenses or modify the meaning of other verbs.

Those verbs are said to be *Defective* which are deficient or

wanting in some of their parts,—that is, have not the full number of moods and tenses.

The same verb is often both Auxiliary and Defective, as will be seen from the following :—

(1) Be.

		Singular.			Plural.		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Present	Indicative	am	art	is	are		
	Subjunctive	be	be	be	be		
Past	Indicative	was	wast	was	were		
	Subjunctive	were	wert	were	were		

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To be	be	being	having been

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(a) As an Intransitive verb of *Complete Predication* :—

God *is* = God exists.

There *are* many men, who, etc. = Many men exist, who, etc.

(b) As an Intransitive verb of *Incomplete Predication* :—

A horse *is* a four-legged animal.

This coat *was* of many colours.

(c) As an Auxiliary verb :—

All the tenses of Passive verbs and all the Continuous tenses of Active ones are formed by the help of the verb *to be*.

(2) Have.

		Singular.			Plural.		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Present	Indicative	have	hast	has	have		
	Subjunctive	have	have	have	have		
Past	Indicative	had	hadst	had	had		
	Subjunctive	had	hadst	had	had		

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To have	have	having	having had

This verb is used in two different senses:—

(a) As a Transitive verb, denoting possession. In this sense it is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses:—

We have (=we possess) four cows and twenty sheep.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb:—

All the Perfect tenses, in all the Moods, Active and Passive, are formed by the help of this verb.

(3) Shall.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present : :	shall	shalt	shall	shall
Past : :	should	shouldst	should	should

There are no other tenses or forms to this verb. The Present is used as an Auxiliary verb for forming the *first* person of a Future tense; and the Past for forming Subjunctive moods.

(4) Will.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	will	wilt	will	will
Past . . .	{ would willed	{ wouldst willedst	{ would willed	{ would willed

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To will	...	willing	having willed

This verb is used in two different senses:—

(a) As an Auxiliary verb:—

The *second* and *third* persons of the Future Indicative are formed by *will*; and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *would*.

(b) As a Principal or independent verb in the sense of leaving property by a written document or "will." In this sense the Past tense is *willed*, and not *would*.

He *willed* = decided by his written will or testament, that all his property should go to his daughter.

(5) Do.

	Singular.			Plural.		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Present : :	do	dost	does	do	do	do
Past : :	did	didst	did	do	do	do

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To do	do	doing	having done

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(a) As a Principal or independent verb in the sense of “perform.” In this sense it is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses :—

It will be a year, before you can *do* this.
I am now *doing* what you *have done* already.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb, declined only in the Present and Past tenses :—

Do and *did* are used as auxiliaries to the Present and Past tenses, Indicative, of other verbs for the sake of *emphasis*, for the sake of inserting a *negative*, and for the sake of *asking a question* (see §§ 93, 94).

Do is also used in colloquial English to give force to the Imperative mood in an *affirmative* sense (see § 100).

Do is always used when the Imperative is preceded by “*not*”; as, “*Do not steal*” (see § 99).

(c) As a Pro-verb or Substitute-verb, to save the repetition of a verb previously mentioned :—

I finished the work, and so *did* (=finished) you.

(6) May.

	Singular.			Plural.		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Present : :	may	mayest	may	may	may	may
Past : :	might	mightest	might	might	might	might

This verb is always Auxiliary. It has no other forms than those shown above.

(7) Can.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	Can	canst	can	can
Past . . .	Could	couldst	could	could

This verb is always Auxiliary. It has no other forms than those shown above.

(8) Ought.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present or Past .	Ought	oughtest	ought	ought

This verb has no other forms than those shown above, and stands equally for Past and Present time:—

Present.—You ought to do this; (and you are expected to do it).

Past.—You ought to have done this; (but you did not do it).

(9) Must.

This verb has no varieties of form, and stands equally for Past and Present time.

Present.—You must do this before sunset.

Past.—You must have done it by this time.

(10) Dare.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	dare	darest	{ dare dares	dare
Past . . .	{ durst dared	durst dared	durst dared	durst dared

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To dare	dare	daring	having dared

The peculiarity of this verb is that the present Singular is "dare," and not "dares," when it is followed by "not."

He *dare* not (=has not the courage to) leave the room.

The Past tense has two forms, "durst" and "dared":—

He *durst* not (or dared not) leave the room.

This verb has all the moods and tenses.

(11) Quoth.

This verb means "says," or "said," and stands equally for Past and Present time. It is used only in the Third person and only in the Singular number. It always stands *before* its subject:—

"Let me not live," *quoth* he.—*Shakspeare*.

(12) Need.

This is a Principal verb, signifying "require," "want"; and is declined regularly in all its moods and tenses.

The Third person Singular, when it is followed by "not," is *need*, and not *needs*, just as *dare* in a negative sentence is used for *dares*:—

He *need* not (=is under no necessity to) do any more work.

In such a sentence as "he must *needs* do this," *needs* is really a Possessive case, with the apostrophe before the *s* omitted. So *needs* = need's = of need = of necessity = necessarily. *Needs* has therefore become an Adverb.

(13) Worth.

This verb occurs in such a sentence as "woe *worth* the day," which equals "woe be to the day." The noun "day" is in the Objective case.

Worth is here the Third person, Singular, Subjunctive, of an obsolete verb signifying "to be" or "to become." The Subjunctive is here used in the sense of wish (see § 106, 2).

(14) Wit.

This verb signifies "to know." Only a few of its forms have survived; the rest have become obsolete.

(a) The Infinitive form *to wit*, in the sense of "namely." This is much used in legal documents at the present day:—

He left me by will all his land, *to wit*, the three farms.

(b) The Present Participle has survived in the negative adverbial form of *unwittingly*, which means "unknowingly" or "unintentionally."

You cannot blame him for this, since he did it *unwittingly*.

(c) In the Present Indicative this verb has the form of *wot*, and in the Past Indicative it has the form of *wist*; but these are almost obsolete.

Present.—He *wot* (knows) neither what he babbles nor what he means.—*Tyndal*.

Past.—They *wist* (knew) not what had become of him.—*New Testament*.

(15) Beware.

This is a compound word consisting of *be* + *ware*. "Ware" is an old form of the adjective "wary," which means "cautious." The adjective is complement to the verb "be," and is always followed by the preposition "of."

The form "beware" is the only one used.

Imperative.—*Beware* of false prophets.

Infinitive.—He told them *to beware* of false prophets.

With Auxiliary Verbs.—You *shall beware*, you *did beware*, you *can beware*, you *must beware*, etc.

THE END